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Recent Supreme Court Decisions: The Great Steel Seizure Controversy

Isidore Starr

IF THE recent steel seizure controversy is any indication, it is obvious that most Americans love a good constitutional argument. Certainly those of us who teach in the high schools and colleges were well aware of the primacy of this event during the spring of 1952 in the eyes of our students and of their parents. Radio and newspaper, commentator and columnist had a field day with the issues at stake. Justice Frankfurter has aptly characterized our national predilection in this constitutional direction in the following words:

> So-called constitutional questions seem to exercise a mesmeric influence over the public mind. This eagerness to settle—preferably forever—a specific problem on the basis of the broadest possible constitutional pronouncements may not unfairly be called one of our minor national traits. An English observer of our scene has acutely described it: "At the first sound of a new argument over the United States Constitution and its interpretation the hearts of Americans leap with a fearful joy. The blood stirs powerfully in their veins and a new lustre brightens their eyes. Like King Harry's men before Harfleur, they stand like greyhounds in the slips, straining upon the start (*The Economist*, May 10, 1952. p. 370.").[1]

Backgrounds

IT ALL started out innocently enough as a labor-management disagreement between the major steel companies and the United Steelworkers of America, C.I.O., over the terms and conditions to be included in a new collective bargaining contract. Strikes scheduled for December 31, 1951, and January 3, 1952, were called off when President Truman referred the case to the Wage Stabilization Board. In March the Board announced its recommendations which were accepted by the union and denounced by management. When the union gave notice of its nation-wide strike to begin on April 9, 1952, President Truman, a few hours before the deadline, issued his now-famous Executive Order seizing the steel mills.

With this Executive Order, what had started out as a labor-management disagreement now emerged as a great historic controversy involving the very nature of our system of checks and balances. This document, citing the existence of a national emergency, emphasized our world-wide commitments in repelling Communist aggression. Steel, the *sine qua non* of our domestic economy and our military materiél, was especially necessary for a UN victory in Korea, for the strengthening of our Atlantic Community partners, and for the work of the Atomic Energy Commission. Since the steel stoppage would imperil our national defense efforts and jeopardize our forces in Korea, the President ordered the Secretary of Commerce to take possession of and operate certain steel companies; to prescribe terms of employment and to recognize collective bargaining; and to permit the managements of companies to continue their ordinary business functions, subject to the directions of the Secretary. The most important phrase in this Order was the President's declaration that it was issued by virtue of the authority vested in him "by the Constitution and laws of the United States, and as President of the United States and Commander in Chief of the armed forces of the United States." It is with this phrase that the issue was clearly joined.

President Truman's seizure was not based on

[1] This is the third and concluding article in a series of three. Dr. Starr, a social studies teacher in Brooklyn (N.Y.) Technical High School, is the author of *Human Rights in The United States* (New York: Oxford Book Company, 1951), in which he summarizes Supreme Court decisions bearing on the rights of individuals.

[1] Quoted from Justice Frankfurter's concurring opinion in the steel seizure case here discussed.

any specific Congressional authorization. He did not—or rather, could not—use the two statutes (Selective Service Act of 1948 and Defense Production Act of 1950 with its Amendments) which permitted seizure of private property under certain conditions, for the circumstances here did not fit within the designated framework. Nor had the President invoked the 80-day "cooling off" period of the Taft-Hartley Law because, as he stated, the steelworkers had waited more than ninety days while the Wage Stabilization Board had studied the dispute. He had based his Executive Order on his power as Chief Executive and as Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy.

The steel companies immediately attacked the President's move as an unconstitutional exercise of the lawmaking power—a power vested only in the Congress. Since it had not been authorized by an Act of Congress, the seizure was illegal. The Government countered with the argument that the President had "inherent powers" to do this and that he was "supported by the Constitution, by historical precedent, and by court decisions."

ON APRIL 30th, Federal District Court Judge David A. Pine handed down a sweeping decision holding the seizure order illegal and granting a preliminary injunction restraining the Secretary of Commerce from taking possession of the steel mills. On the same day the Circuit Court of Appeals stayed the injunction pending the Government's appeal to the Supreme Court. The latter granted certiorari and, to the amazement of those who deplore the leisurely paces of our highest tribunal, the all-important decision was handed down less than eight weeks after the President's seizure on April 9th.[2]

Rather than view the facts as arising out of a specific emergency, the Court accepted the challenge to examine the problem in its historic framework and to redefine, if necessary, the powers of the Chief Executive under our unique system of government.

It was Justice Brandeis who gave us a classic explanation of the *raison d'être* of our system of checks and balances:

> The doctrine of the separation of powers was adopted by the Convention of 1787, not to promote efficiency but to preclude the exercise of arbitrary power. The purpose was, not to avoid friction, but, by means of the inevitable friction incident to the distribution of the governmental powers among three departments, to save the people from autocracy.

Under such a system of distributed authority, what is the role of the President? Does he have "inherent powers" to do everything necessary to preserve the well-being and safety of the nation? Or, is he merely a "messenger-boy" whose chief job is to execute the dictates of Congress and to send messages to it?

Among the many reflections on the powers of the Presidency, those of Theodore Roosevelt and William Howard Taft seem to have made a deep impression on some of the present Justices. Whereas the latter, who was both President and Chief Justice, concluded that there was "no undefined residuum of power which he (the President) can exercise because it seems to him to be in the public interest," the former believed in the "stewardship" concept. In his *Autobiography* Theodore Roosevelt expounded the theory that it is both the President's right and duty to do everything that the needs of the nation demand save that which is specifically forbidden by the Constitution or Congress.[3]

The Decision

WITH this as the background, let us now turn to the case which will be quoted for many years to come as one of the classic expositions of the powers of the President over private property—*Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co. et al. v. Sawyer*, 343 U. S. 579 (June 2, 1952). It was a six to three decision against the Government, consisting of seven separate opinions running to 131 pages. Each of the six Justices finding against the Government felt impelled to write an essay on the nature of the Presidential office.

Justice Black wrote the opinion of the Court in a simple and brief statement, somewhat didactic in tone. It almost seems that he is lecturing the President on the limits of his power. The concluding paragraph is indicative of the general tone of the opinion:

> The Founders of this Nation entrusted the law-making power to the Congress alone in both good and bad times. It would do no good to recall the historical events, the fears of power and the hopes for freedom that lay behind their choice. Such a review would but confirm our holding that this seizure order cannot stand.

---

[2] For a chronology of the steel dispute, see *The New York Times*, June 3, 1952. p. 22:5, 6.

[3] For brief quotations of the views of Taft and Theodore Roosevelt, see *The New York Times*, June 3, 1952. p. 23:1 and the dissenting opinion of Chief Justice Vinson in the case in point.

In the lower court the Government had argued that the central constitutional issue was not ripe for determination because the steel companies could not prove irreparable damage resulting from the seizure. And, if perchance damages were suffered later on, the companies could recover full compensation in the Court of Claims, provided the taking of the property was unlawful. Justice Black finds no merit whatever in this argument as he points out that precedents "cast doubt on the right to recover in the Court of Claims on account of properties unlawfully taken by government officials for public use as these properties were alleged to have been." Furthermore, a decision on the constitutional question was in order because "seizure and governmental operation of these going businesses were bound to result in many present and future damages of such nature as to be difficult, if not incapable, of measurement."

Justice Black then turns to the basic issue of whether the seizure order was within the constitutional power of the President. Such action had to stem either from an Act of Congress or from the Constitution. There is no evidence that the President had taken the property pursuant to any specific statute. As a matter of fact, Congressional opposition to the seizure technique in labor disputes was a matter of recent record. In 1947 when the Taft-Hartley Law was under consideration, Congress had actually rejected an amendment which would have sanctioned this procedure in times of emergency.

Nor was there any express or implied authority in the Constitution in support of President Truman's position. True, Article II provides that "The executive Power shall be vested in a President"; that "he shall take care that the Laws be faithfully executed"; and that he "shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States." Not one of these provisions gives rise to the doctrine of "inherent power," concluded the Justice.

The seizure order cannot be sustained on the basis of the President's executive powers, for the power to execute laws "refutes the idea that he is to be a lawmaker." By his action the Chief Executive has usurped the legislative powers which are vested exclusively in Congress.

> The power of Congress to adopt such public policies as those proclaimed by the order is beyond question. It can authorize the taking of private property for public use. It can make laws regulating the relationships between employers and employees, prescribing rules designed to settle labor disputes, and fixing wages and working conditions in certain fields of our economy. The Constitution does not subject this lawmaking power of Congress to presidential or military supervision or control.

As for the argument that the Commander in Chief has broad powers to do everything necessary to safeguard the nation, Justice Black answered:

> Even though "theatre of war" be an expanding concept, we cannot with faithfulness to our constitutional system hold that the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces had the ultimate power as such to take possession of private property in order to keep labor disputes from stopping production. This is a job for the Nation's lawmakers, not for its military authorities.

And even if Presidents did in the past seize private property in order to settle labor disputes, such examples do not prove that "Congress has lost its constitutional authority to make laws necessary and proper to carry out the powers" vested in it by Article I in general, and by the Elastic Clause in particular.

Concurring Opinions

JUSTICE FRANKFURTER began his concurring opinion with a mild reproof for those who had attacked President Truman's action as dictatorial.

> It is absurd to see a dictator in a representative product of the sturdy democratic traditions of the Mississippi Valley. The accretion of dangerous power does not come in a day. It does come, however slowly, from the generative force of unchecked disregard of the restrictions that fence in even the most disinterested assertion of authority.

However, even though the Chief Executive acted with the best of intentions for the nation's well-being, his seizure was illegal. The history of the Taft-Hartley Law and the provisions of the Defense Production Act show that Congress had consciously withheld seizure power from the President.

Of particular interest to teachers and students of the social sciences are two charts which Justice Frankfurter has appended to his opinion. The first, a synopsis and analysis of legislation from 1862 to the present authorizing the seizure of industrial property, serves to emphasize that Congress has surrounded the drastic seizure power with many limitations and safeguards. The second chart summarizes the various seizures of industrial plants and facilities by the President from the Civil War to the present. In general, according to the Justice, these examples add up to a pattern of Congressional authorization for the Presidents' actions.

Justice Douglas, in a very brief opinon, also

condemns the seizure as an unconstitutional exercise of powers vested only in Congress. He emphasizes that the Fifth Amendment authorizes the taking of private property for public use, provided there is just compensation. Congress, with its control over the purse, is the only branch of the Government which can exercise this power of eminent domain. It can empower the President to take possession of private property; or it can legalize a seizure that has been effected by the Chief Executive on his own initiative. Perhaps Congress should have acted with greater speed in this present emergency. However, its failure to act did not empower the President to enter the legislative domain reserved only to the Congress. The Justice then concludes with a few brief words which will probably be quoted often:

> We pay a price for our system of checks and balances, for the distribution of power among the three branches of government. It is a price that today may seem exorbitant to many. Today a kindly President uses the seizure power to effect a wage increase and to keep the steel furnaces in production. Yet tomorrow another President might use the same power to prevent a wage increase, to curb trade-unionists, to regiment labor as oppressively as industry thinks it has been regimented by this seizure.

A similar note is sounded by Justice Jackson in his concurring opinion:

> The executive action we have here originates in the individual will of the President and represents an exercise of authority without law. No one, perhaps not even the President, knows the limits of the power he may seek to exert in this instance and the parties affected cannot learn the limits of their rights. We do not know today what powers over labor or property would be claimed to flow from Government possession if we should legalize it, what rights to compensation would be claimed or recognized, or on what contingency it would end. With all its defects, delays and inconveniences, men have discovered no technique for long preserving free government except that the Executive be under the law, and that the law be made by parliamentary deliberations.
>
> Such institutions may be destined to pass away. But it is the duty of the Court to be last, not first, to give them up.

This present emergency, points out the Justice, confronts both the President and Congress. Since the "power to legislate for emergencies belongs in the hands of Congress," the latter may eventually abdicate its powers "if it is not wise and timely in meeting its problems." But as matters stand today, the "inherent powers" formula is inconsistent with our principle of separation of powers.

Justice Burton's brief concurring opinion also concludes that President Truman's seizure order was illegal because there was no statutory support for this action. Neither the Taft-Hartley Law procedure, which the President did not follow, nor use of the Wage Stabilization Board, which he did, carried statutory power for this particular seizure of private property. If we were confronted with "imminent invasion or threatened attack," the case might be different. But, since this is not so, Congress has "the right to determine where and when to authorize the seizure of property in meeting such an emergency."

The last of the concurring opinions—the one by Justice Clark—concedes that the President has "inherent powers" in times of national peril. However, where Congress has prescribed a course of action to meet a crisis, the Chief Executive is required to follow it. The President had available three statutes in this case: the Taft-Hartley Law, the Defense Production Act of 1950, and the Selective Service Act of 1948. He refused to use the first; he did use the Wage Stabilization Board mediation procedure established under the second; and he failed to use the third which did authorize seizure in certain cases, and which might have been used here.[4] However, since the President's action was not based on a law which specifically sanctioned seizure, it is unconstitutional.

Dissenting Opinion

WE TURN from these six opinions with their different emphases to the long dissenting opinion of Chief Justice Vinson, in which Justices Minton and Reed joined. The ruling of the majority, says the Chief Justice, is based on a "messenger-boy concept" of the Presidency. Certainly the Chief Executive, when confronted by threats of disaster to our nation, can do more than merely "confine himself to sending a message to Congress recommending action." The history of the Presidency is the story of executive leadership on many important and trying occasions. From Washington to Franklin D. Roosevelt our Presidents have acted, "with or without explicit statutory authorization," to enforce the will of the Legislature, or "at least to have those programs until Congress could act."

Actually, indicates the dissent, President Truman's action was designed to safeguard Con-

(Continued on page 10)

[4] Justice Clark concurred in judgment, but not in the opinion of the Court as written by Justice Black. He differed with the latter on the doctrine of "inherent powers" and on the applicability of the Selective Service Act to the facts in the case.

Puerto Rico: The First Commonwealth of the United States

Joseph S. Roucek

IN THE Caribbean "backyard" of the United States lies one of the most beautiful, as well as interesting and strategically important spots belonging to the United States. Although only a very small island—about 100 miles long and 35 miles wide—Puerto Rico's location has made it a cornerstone of American strategy, second only in importance to the Panama Canal.[1]

But the strategic value must not overshadow other important aspects of Puerto Rico's existence. The granting of the Constitution in 1952 presents a new formula for solving the world-wide problem of colonialism. For the adoption of "Commonwealth" as the name of the new political entity, with the right of Puerto Rico to handle its own affairs in nearly all local matters, differs this state from all other colonies. This makes the Puerto Ricans the equal citizens of the United States. Even so, the island is still dependent upon the United States' help, due to its lack of resources and its dense population. This status should help quiet the fear of "Yankeeism," which has been agitating the nationalists below the Rio Grande since the days of "dollar diplomacy." In fact, the whole evolution of the United States-Puerto Rican relations shows that the problem was not what one author called "the dynamite on our doorsteps," but the search for a relationship of mutual consent and esteem.

Some Historical Facts

COLUMBUS discovered Puerto Rico on November 19, 1493, on his second voyage to the New World. Settlement began with Ponce de Léon, later discoverer of Florida. For four centuries Puerto Rico remained a part of the Spanish Empire. In San Juan, at the Caribbean gateway, Spaniards planted the first permanent colony in the present territory of the United States. To protect the colony and their treasure fleets, they built El Morro, a chain of mighty forts rising 140 feet and more above the sea—forts whose remains can be seen in San Juan today. But above all, Puerto Rico was used by the Spanish military and navy men as the key to the Caribbean gateway, guarding a homeward passage to Spain via the Florida Straits and the Gulf Stream. Twice a year, the riches of Spain's American empire were delivered to Spain by two convoys. These convoys met at Havana for the homeward voyage past the shores of Florida. Spain tried to protect the ships from numerous bold pirates of the Caribbean by maintaining bases at Puerto Rico and St. Augustine, Florida. But corsairs continually threatened the island, and the long, 17th century conflict between Spain and the Netherlands was also mirrored in Puerto Rico's history of wars. During the Spanish-American war, in accordance with the geopolitical doctrines of Admiral T. Mahan, the United States developed Puerto Rico, with Cuba at first and later with the Panama Canal, as the cornerstone of the United States' military and naval bases in the "American Mediterranean." The strategic significance of Puerto Rico is derived not only from the fact that it controls the routes between North and South America, but also because it lies between the Atlantic and the Pacific, a significance enhanced by the construction of the Panama Canal.

World War II highlighted the importance of the island. At that time the Caribbean was America's second line of defense, the first being the battered fleet and small, valiant air force that prevented the invasion of the British Isles by the Nazis. Furthermore, before North Africa was cleared of the enemy in 1943 and the Mediter-

The author, a professor of political science and sociology at the University of Bridgeport in Connecticut, wrote this article after his return from a summer teaching assignment as visiting professor at the University of Puerto Rico.

[1] That this strategic importance is appreciated even by the Kremlin is certified to by the one-page article on "Free Puerto Rico" in the Moscow *New Times*, No. 32, 1952. p. 19.

ranean opened, the Caribbean route was the principal air-ferry and water route to Africa, the Middle East, the Far East, and South America. As late as the summer of 1942 submarine sinkings seriously threatened this route. The United States Army reports how important Puerto Rico is to the American defense: "In the American defense system, Puerto Rico stands as a fortress guarding the Caribbean entrance to the Panama Canal. At present, it is an important naval base for the United States Atlantic fleet and headquarters of the Tenth Naval District, which includes bases at Guantanamo, Cuba, and Port of Spain, Trinidad. Roosevelt Roads, at the eastern end of the island, is one of the largest bases in the Western Hemisphere. Puerto Rico is an air base for military transport planes and for planes protecting shipping lanes in the Caribbean.

Puerto Rico has also assumed an ever-increasing importance as a major air center in the Western Hemisphere. For some years it has been an important way station on air routes to all parts of Latin America, and quite recently it has been closely integrated with the air-traffic pattern of the United States, Eastern Airlines carrying during its first full year of its operation (ending April, 1952) some 80,000 passengers. The old Isla Grand Airport inside San Juan is fast approaching its capacity; an average of 1,000 passengers clear the airport every day. Air cargo has also shown a rapid increase, thus forcing the insular government to start building an "airport of the future," big enough to handle the biggest and the fastest planes now on the planning boards.

Operation Bootstrap

THE formation of the "Commonwealth" can be understood only within the framework of the economic problems of Puerto Rico. The island is a community of more than 2,000,000 American citizens, fighting against poverty, trying to overcome obstacles presented by a poor allotment of natural resources, aiming to destroy undesirable living conditions resulting from centuries of neglect, and battling for increased production.

It is a real thrill to take the "tourist" plane of Eastern Airlines at midnight from New York International Airport and land, at 6 A.M., in San Juan. Leaving the airport means entering another world—tropical, exotic, and friendly—and yet it has all the American conveniences. It is a picture-card world, characterized by beautiful, white, sandy beaches, shaded by endless lines of coconut palms. Two mountain chains, of varied luxuriant vegetation, cross the island.

But this beautiful scenery cannot hide the human factor: Puerto Rico is rich in human resources, but poor in natural resources. The mountainous territory, of splendid natural beauty, lacks deep level soil. Iron and coal are also lacking. The territory of only 3,434 square miles has, however, to support a density of population four times greater than that of the most densely populated of the Latin American Republics (except Haiti). Puerto Rico's population, though rapidly acquiring education and technical skills, still lags behind the advanced industrial states. In 1946, Puerto Rico's income per capita was $265, roughly one fourth of the corresponding figure for the United States as a whole. The island's income per person is about one half the level for the poorest state of the Union.

Another dominant influence upsetting the island's economic balance is the pressure of growing population. For centuries, while there was still enough land to support the people, Puerto Rico realized the advantage of its mild sub-tropical climate. But for the past 150 years, the population has doubled every 50 years. The island was controlled first by the Army, next by the War Department (1898-1900), then by a civilian governor, and then again by the War Department. In 1934 it was placed under the Division of Territories and Island Possessions in the Department of the Interior. The appointed Governors were not always a happy choice.

UNTIL recently, Puerto Rico's economy had been dominated by mainland sugar interests, who needed cheap sugar and cheap labor to process it. The island's one-crop economy prospered, but living conditions were sinking. While public health was able to cut the death rate one half, the birth rate was doubling, with the result that there were eventually four more jobless workers for everyone that died.

When Professor Rexford Tugwell was appointed Governor in 1941, he utilized the brains of a former poet of Greenwich Village, Muñoz Marín, who, then aged 43, was head of the Popular Party and President of the Senate of Puerto Rico. The team started to break up corporation ownership of giant plantations, diversify agriculture, and also tried to attract American capital to launch new industries. On January 2, 1949, when Luis Muñoz Marín took office as the first popularly chosen Governor, he inaugurated "Operation Bootstrap," a planned effort to re-

place the historic one-and-two-crop economy by a program of industrialization, backed mostly by American businessmen invited to establish their new plants in Puerto Rico. The invitation has been made enticing by making these new businesses tax-free for a certain number of years. Eventually, this plan is to absorb the ever-increasing Puerto Rican labor force and build up a middle class which would do away with the historic population division between the very many poor and the very few wealthy. Subsidized at first, manufacturing began with the island's own needs, such as cement for building, and the island's own potential, such as bottles for rum. Today, one new plant is being built every five days, and unemployment has been cut to ten percent. Production of everything from textiles and pharmaceuticals to artificial flowers and refrigerators has raised the living standards and tripled imports from the mainland.

The Puerto Ricans were sometimes quite restless under the American "colonial" administration, and the Nationalist Party, composed of a few fanatics, tried to assassinate President Truman and Governor Muñoz Marín. The natives felt that they were only second- or third-rate American citizens, although they participated actively in both World Wars and contributed their share, to the extent of 80,000 men and officers, during World War II. If arguments are heard about the "low level" of the Puerto Rican immigrants in the United States, the spokesmen for the Puerto Ricans can point out that these are the old arguments against the latest arrivals, and Puerto Rico has given the United States such outstanding names as José Ferrer, Diosa Costello, Olga San Juan, and Dr. Juano Hernández in the movies and theatre, Jesus María Sanroma, the pianist, Graciela Rivera, coloratura soprano of the Metropolitan Opera Company, Noro Morales, the composer and orchestra leader, and Luis Olmo in baseball. Furthermore Puerto Rico has not only been receiving but also giving favors to the United States. A variety of products important to American consumers come from Puerto Rico: sugar from cane, cigars and cigar filler, fresh and canned pineapple, canned grapefruit, confectionary sugar, high quality rum, fine needlework, gloves, and radios. Also Puerto Rico is the United States' most faithful customer. In depression or war, practically every dollar expended on the island for military purposes is spent in the United States. In 1947-48, Puerto Rico purchased nearly $337,000,000 worth of goods from the United States.

In 1947 it was obvious that the relationship between Puerto Rico, and the United States had to be redefined. In that year, the Congress of the United States had voted to enable Puerto Ricans to elect their governor every four years, and in 1950 a law was passed allowing the people of Puerto Rico to draft their own Constitution. It is interesting to note that the Constitutional Convention utilized extensively the staff of the University of Puerto Rico, headed by Pedro Muñoz Amato, Dean of the Social Science Department of this growing institution. The University of Puerto Rico heads the educational system of the island and is rapidly pushing to the front ranks of the higher institutions of learning in all South America. On July 4, 1952, Puerto Rico celebrated the inauguration of its new constitution, which changed the status of the island from a territory to that of a Commonwealth, gave full appointment powers to the Governor of Puerto Rico, and eliminated the United States' congressional power of repeal over legislature.[2] The document retains all familiar guarantees of American Bill of Rights, and also goes one point further in that it recognizes social and economic rights which are to be found only in the post-war constitutions of other countries and in recent international declarations. Puerto Rico is allowed to handle its purely internal affairs provided that these affairs are handled under the constitutional set-up in conformity with the United States Constitution. The document gives the island maximum self-government on the local level, and, at the same time, retains "Free Commonwealth" relations with the United States. It abolishes the power of the United States Congress to repeal insular laws, leaving the way open for Puerto Rico to become a state in the Union later. It takes away from the President of the United States the power to appoint such local officials as auditors and Supreme Court Justices. As formerly, Puerto Ricans living in Puerto Rico do not vote in United States' national elections, but when living in the United States they vote under the laws of the state that they are residing in. No federal legislators are elected by Puerto Ricans, rather they are represented in Washington by a Resident Commissioner with the status and duties of a Congressman. He may introduce bills in the House of Representatives, speak on the

[2] See: *Notes and Comments on the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico* and *Documents of the Constitutional History of Puerto Rico*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Puerto Rico, 1026 17 St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

floor, serve as a member of several House committees, but he does not have the right to vote.

The Puerto Rican Legislature is composed of 27 Senators and 51 Representatives. There is a very interesting provision that "no person shall be a member of the Legislative Assembly unless he is able to read and write the Spanish or English language. . . ." The Legislature meets in February of each year and special sessions may be called by the Governor. One of the important powers of the Senate is the right to reject officials nominated by the Governor.

There are 77 municipalities, which correspond roughly to counties in the United States. Each municipality elects a Mayor and other officers. But many of the normal activities of a mainland municipality are discharged by the Insular Government which is responsible for fire protection, water and sewerage services, and maintains the police force. The Insular Government is composed of the Departments of Justice, Health, Interior, Education, Treasury, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. The Executive Secretary of Puerto Rico and the Commissioners of the Departments and the Executive Secretary form the Executive for the Executive Council, which acts in the capacity of a Cabinet.

Governor Muñoz Marín

WHEN Governor Muñoz Marín, in the proclamation of the Constitution, stated that with the new order "colonialism" comes to an end in the island, he was a true spokesmen of his people. A powerful orator with wide appeal to island voters, he is the first Governor elected by popular vote. All his predecessors—numbering 150, beginning with Ponce de Léon—were appointees either of the Spanish Crown or the United States' President. Undisputed boss of his party, the Popular Democratic Party, he is dominant in both legislative and administrative fields. Although he is accused by his opponents of running a one-man government, he is truly admired by the masses, achieving the status of what the sociologist would call "charismatic leadership." Under his leadership, the "Operation Bootstrap" should advance Puerto Rico economically, improve its advancing health and educational standards and push it forward in the long hard climb toward better living conditions.

RECENT SUPREME COURT DECISIONS

(Continued from page 6)

gressional enactments strengthening the free world against Communist aggression: our support of the U.N. in Korea, the Truman Plan, the Marshall Plan, the North Atlantic Treaty, the Mutual Security Act of 1951, and the buttressing of our economy against inflation and labor disputes in defense industries. Article II of the Constitution provides among other things, that the Chief Executive "shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed." This is precisely what our President was doing.

Whatever the extent of Presidential power on more tranquil occasions, and whatever the right of the President to execute legislative programs as he sees fit without reporting the mode of execution to Congress, the single Presidential purpose disclosed on this record is to faithfully execute the laws by acting in an emergency to maintain the status quo, thereby preventing collapse of the legislative programs until Congress could act. The President's action served the same purposes as a judicial stay entered to maintain the status quo in order to preserve the jurisdiction of a court. In his Message to Congress immediately following the seizure, the President explained the necessity of his action in executing the military procurement and anti-inflation legislative programs and expressed his desire to cooperate with any legislative proposals approving, regulating or rejecting the seizure of the steel mills. Consequently, there is no evidence whatever of any Presidential purpose to defy Congress or act in any way inconsistent with the legislative will.

The remainder of the story is somewhat anticlimactic. Having promised to abide by the decision, President Truman promptly ordered the mills returned to their owners. Congress generally hailed the Court's verdict and it was obvious that the measures to impeach or censure the President would remain in the limbo of the committee room.

However, in historical contemplation, the decision will be long remembered. For, at a time when newspaper headlines featured stories of nations tolerating "Strong Men" at their helm, our highest tribunal reaffirmed our system of checks and balances as the great bulwark of a government by the people.

Social Studies Planning for Older Children

Clyde B. Moore

WE ARE here concerned with children in grades 4-5-6, children whose ages range from ten to twelve years, recognizing at the same time that there are fringes of exceptionals above and below these ages. These children constitute a mighty stream of citizens flowing through the schools at a time in their lives when changes in their nature, understanding, attitudes, and abilities are rushing along faster than either they or we may think. We count these young citizens; weigh them, determine their height, estimate their abilities and capacities and assign them to places in classrooms. Some of the classrooms are places of beauty and comfort. They invite wholesome responses in innumerable ways. Other classrooms —dirty, dingy, makeshift, crowded—depress the spirit. Many of the teachers are well prepared; others are less well equipped to accomplish the best we know. As we look about and reflect, we are thrilled with satisfaction in many instances and are happily infected with the buoyant spirits and obvious growth and development of our fellow citizens of ten to twelve. We wish this state of affairs were universal, but it is not universal. What then can we do to bring the poor conditions up to the best we know and have? Beyond these what can we do to make even the good better?

The Individual in Society

IF WE were planning certain programs of studies, we should press for the results of various measurements of innate abilities, achievements in skills of various kinds, aptitudes and attitudes. If we have these, and even more, as we may in social studies planning, it is well and good; but such facts or probable estimates are not all that we need. We are eager, in social studies planning, to see clearly the individual differences in any group, grade, or class. Classification, at best, is an arbitrary thing designed largely for economy of effort and money, and for convenience. So long as instruction is not purely an individual matter some such classification is inevitable but in our planning, we must not look merely to the machinery of organization. The heart of the matter lies in the best growth and development of each individual.

Each pupil must do his own learning. In the last analysis this proposition brooks no exception. With all our systems and schemes for mass instruction, *learning* remains an individual matter. From birth to death each individual through the nature of his living and learning is building a characteristic self or personality. Interestingly enough the nature of the individual as a self or personality depends directly upon the nature of his social environment. If his social environment is restricted, cramped and narrow, his selfhood cannot flourish.

It is reported in Biblical account that the Prodigal Son "came to himself," but this was after living, experiencing and learning in a variety of tough social situations. The children we have in mind are reaching out in social relationships and measuring themselves (the self) as a normal part of their growth and development. It is at this point that the elements in social studies planning emerge in significant values for each individual. The Prodigal Son fed upon husks and, to make a quick deduction, those responsible for social studies can ill afford to present growing young citizens with a mass of social husks. Rather must each pupil see, feel, appreciate, and know something of the interplay of social events, their order, relationship and consequences as they impinge upon him as a growing personality.

This article was originally presented as an address at the Detroit meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. Dr. Moore is a professor of education at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York.

We believe in a society of free men. This is the heart of the American heritage, and of our educational system. Each person is of supreme worth. Each is an end *in* himself, but never merely an end *for* himself. As he grows and develops as a person, he becomes proportionately more deeply indebted to his fellow citizens for the opportunities to make the most of himself. He is not entitled to seize advantages for himself which are not available in a similar sense to his fellow citizens. In the bargaining between the individual and society, the bargaining must be sound and good, as in any bargain; the buyer and the seller must each profit. A free man is entitled to those freedoms which do not restrict corresponding freedoms for others. He comes to understand the meaning of freedom and the nature of himself as an individual as he lives and learns in a social situation. He learns what he lives and does.

Social studies bring out efforts to a focus in providing for the social growth and development of each individual. The general purpose of the program may be stated as applicable to all persons or at least to all citizens. We are eager that all may have common experiences within reasonable limits. It is much like saying that all children should be well nourished, well clothed and well sheltered. These purposes are good purposes, but a critical examination, even a hurried examination, reveals that we have not faced the numerous needs and problems of each little Tom, Dick, and Harry or Betty, Anne, and Mary. The best nourishment for Tom may not be the best for Dick or Harry. Gastronomic needs vary and available foods vary still more widely. Clothing must fit each individual and in turn fit the environmental situation. Mid-summer in Florida is very different from January in Maine. Shelter varies according to numerous needs and social conditions. Social conditions loom large in the provision of these fundamentals as we strive for the ideal poise between the individual and social adjustments which we value so highly. Social studies are designed to assist each learner to approach this delicate, though essential, poise.

Sound social studies planning requires a good clear record of the nature and experience of each individual concerned. It is not a matter of forcing every child into a fixed matrix, good in itself though it may be. Of course we shall take into account numerous likenesses and common characteristics; but to a greater extent, if we are wise, we shall take into account individual differences. The planning must provide differing elements as surely as shoes are fitted to the feet rather than forcing all feet into the same size and kind of a shoe.

Individual abilities and qualities should be squared against accepted standards for normal children. The heritage of the race if studied and analyzed furnishes us with such standards. We readily see them in relationships between age and height, weight, pulse rate, dentition, vision, hearing and scores of other standards discovered through the evolution of the human being. Social patterns are recognized as readily as physical patterns. The latter are a step removed from the strictly biological heritage, but each impinges upon the other. The social heritage permits more manipulation and wider adaptations, but it too has limits. The qualities of the social heritage are always under surveillance as to evaluation. What qualities are bad? What qualities are good? What degrees of difference can we detect? Do even the standards of values differ according to time, place and age? Where are the reference points? Such questions rush in upon us as we strive to provide the leadership in learning, particularly in the social studies, which will provide for growth, strength and freedom of personality.

Social studies planning should be built upon backgrounds and abilities as they are; not as someone may think they ought to be. This point is worthy of special emphasis. Those who are concerned with planning programs of social studies are all too frequently branded as visionaries or "do-gooders." Surely they should strive to do good and they should possess vision for there is a perennial shortage of goodness and we have long since learned that without vision we perish. The fires of criticism, implied here, do not come from those who would cast aside vision or goodness, but from people who fear that our social studies program will be constructed in a vacuum rather than in being rooted in reality. We are urged to face the realities of the world as it is; to take into account the various specimens of the human race, each with his frailty and limitation, and begin operations from these conditions as they are; limited, and even depressing, though they may be. Someone has oversimplified the idea which we are facing by urging that we should do the best we can with what we have where we are. This does not mean complacency, inertia, a state

of self-satisfaction or mere twiddling of the thumbs. It does mean a critical consideration of the nature of differing elements which enter into our planning.

Backgrounds can be classified as the innate biological heritage on the one hand, and on the other, the numerous acquired traits which are considered as the social heritage. The latter are strikingly significant in social studies planning. Each pupil has a unique social heritage through traditions and customs within the family and those we associate with race, nationality, religion, economic status and place of residence. These backgrounds dare not be overlooked in sound planning. Their consideration is basic in the learning-teaching process and also in a sound understanding of the social heritage and our relation to it.

The number and nature of activities in the several units should be varied in the light of differing individual and even group needs. Activities which are obvious to some groups are complex, puzzling and foreign to another. Ships, shipping, wharves and docks and their place in transporting wheat to supply bread in remote parts of the world may not be the obvious to children in the wheat growing areas of Kansas, but these children are well informed as to the planting, growth, harvesting and trucking of the wheat as it starts on its way across land and sea to satisfy hunger in other lands and cultures. So it may be with national tradition—history—which is long in New England but brief in Wyoming. Not only are these differences ever present and, if our curricula are soundly built, they are always taken into account, but numerous local and individual understandings vary enormously. Conversations about the family table, visits from relatives and friends, available magazines and books, wisely planned family trips and directed observations are powerful forces in accentuating differences. Mr. and Mrs. Alert look to the guidance of the learning of their children—even their unfortunate child whose endowment is notably low; their neighbors, Mr. and Mrs. Slothful, even though their children are as bright as the children of the Alert family, do not provide comparable direction in learning and opportunities for gaining insight and understanding.

The children from the Alert family can manage more activities and carry them farther than can the children from the Slothful family. The latter may need more time for gaining insights and understandings; they need closer guidance; they must depend more heavily upon the assistance of the teacher and the facilities of the school.

Differing elements emerge as provisions are made for discussion of individual needs and resultant choices. Some of the most artistic teaching ever to be found is in the type of situation suggested here. It is not enough for the teacher to "tell 'em," or rigidly to direct all members of a class down the same narrow path. They should be going in the same direction or toward the same goal, but there is no better motivation than that attached to wholehearted choice which carries the approval of teacher and fellow pupils. We are discussing "self-starter assignments." Thousands of arbitrary, even dictatorial, assignments have been made in all too many schools. Some authoritarian assignments have been made with rare skill and with the minimum of intrusion upon personality. There is some goodness in all of these but there remains a deep need for the learner to struggle, from his own choice or longing, to plan an assignment, at least in part, for himself. Rarely, under the leadership of a competent teacher, will he go in the wrong direction. The whole framework of the life he lives —in school, home and community—tends to keep him from going too far afield. Psychologically he can make no choice until he feels a need for doing, for learning, for finding out, something suggested by his learning environment. He attains a state of readiness to learn, to choose, to seek guidance and, best of all, to weigh values as best he can in the light of his experiences up to the present moment. His aims, ideals and accomplishments may not fit a neatly printed chart of abstract terms and generalities, but he is bestirring his reflective and active powers to attain a recognized goal.

Differing elements in social studies planning can be attained through provision for a rich variety of kinds of activities and ample time and counsel in making choices. The limits or boundaries of the social studies for the elementary school are difficult to define, more so than vocabularies, number combinations, acceptable handwriting skills and reading ability. The spread is enormous. The trends in our culture, the world around, accentuate this ever-increasing spread. No child can comprehend it all, and the same is true for the savant, even for all the items

that might be comprehended by a sixth-grade pupil! What then can be done about it? In the first place, there must be a clear understanding of the nature and capacity of understanding of children in grades 4-5-6. How does the world in all its social aspects and implications look to him? How far can he go in comprehending it all? He can learn the 7's and even the 9's; he can spell Schenectady and Ypsilanti, if he must; but although he gains a fine insight into the nature of parliamentary government and is inspired by the essential good of democratic action, he by no means acquires complete comprehension in either case. The nature of social studies is not of such character. Important? Yes, very. Limited? No. Social studies change, move, adjust and grow as does the culture of the human race. Differing elements are inevitable and essential.

Since learning comes through doing or living, and particularly is this true of social learnings, rich varieties of activities appear as an obvious need. The array is so varied, so rich, so comprehensive, that satisfying choices cannot be made quickly. One, certainly a child in the elementary school, must have time to think about his choice. He is choosing among ideas, rather than among objects, for the most part. It is unlike choosing among objects in a store or food in a cafeteria. He sees, feels and smells the latter but the ideas, even objectified in part through pictures, charts, models and maps are more difficult but not less important. He seeks freedom in exploring and learning, and is entitled to it, but he is also in need of the wisest counsel and guidance. He needs to see and feel the wide variety of social trends and structures and then choose according to his nature and needs.

One should make sure to tap unusual backgrounds to the advantage of the timid or underprivileged. These backgrounds may lie near the poverty line or flourish in an atmosphere of munificence; the vantage point is to be sure to recognize the nature of the backgrounds and how they may be utilized in adding meaning to the activities at hand. Life in a shack located on the wrong side of the tracks and which is occupied by the family of a garbage collector may teem with interest in social adjustment, economic problems, family and neighborhood traditions. A load of rubbish is much more interesting to children than is a report issued by a stock broker. Even the rich mansion or fine apartment occupied by the broker may not arouse childish interests as does the shack on a sluggish stream near the city dump. These suggested extremes are offered merely as a matter of emphasis.

It is not necessary always to seek out economic extremes but rather to be alert for social deviations which may be significant and meaningful to children, particularly those that may be described and explained by a child who experiences them. Whatever they may be they are a part of our social pattern. They have location, history, relations and trends. Editors of periodicals, both popular and scientific, are aware of the interests in the unusual. The *National Geographic* is a good example as it presents in picture, tabulations, graphs, maps and story items of worth and interest, and invariably the accounts are on the credit side of the ledger of understanding and appreciation. Yellow journalism on the other hand muck-rakes and publicizes the antisocial, possibly justifying the publication as a *negative* which will indirectly emphasize the positive. All is not right with the world, certainly not all the time, but emphasis upon the positive social qualities of unusual backgrounds is desirable for children in the elementary school.

There are imaginative individual explorers, messengers and prospectors in every elementary school. Some of the most cherished memories of oldsters are of early explorations. Many of these emphasize the natural rather than the social but the natural sciences and social sciences can never be entirely divorced. Boundaries set for our numerous disciplines are useful for the sake of critical study but even a cursory examination of these boundaries reveals their artificiality. The nuclear physics laboratory exists because of legal status (law), charter (government), support (economics-taxation), development of scientific method (history of procedures), team work (sociology), accurate description (mathematics, language and logic), learning new things (psychology) and above all the will and approval as expressed by the people in an organized society. So if the little explorer describes geological structures along the cliffs by the river, or a waterfall, it is well and good for in group discussions the social implications inevitably emerge. The waterfalls are the source of power to drive the machines which bring great communities together and innumerable examples could be given of natural factors determining social developments as we think of harbors, mineral deposits, navigable streams, soils, climate, timber and scores of other factors.

(Continued on page 16)

Science and History Revisited

Albert Alexander

ESSENTIALLY, in his article, "The Social Sciences and History,"[1] Dr. René Albrecht-Carrié expounds the old doctrine of the mutual exclusiveness of science and history. Dr. Carrié then emphasizes the great role of the physical and natural sciences in remaking our world, and, by contrast, the general "uselessness" of history in bringing about this change.

There are many pauses for useful reflection in Dr. Carrié's provocative paper. The longest pause, however, is occasioned by his thesis of mutual exclusiveness. This thesis is, indeed, strange, because the author credits science with a status which, as we shall see, it no longer has, even in the eyes of the scientists themselves, while he considers history at its "best, most valuable, or at least the most interesting" when it uses "interpretation" and "escapes from the scientific domain."

It may interest Dr. Carrié to know that a great man of science, Dr. Irving Langmuir, from his life-long study of physics has also found that "interpretation" in his field escapes the "scientific domain." Dr. Langmuir writes:

> The old way of thinking about things was that every effect had a cause to which it could be traced if enough data were available. But modern physics has shown that when a phenomenon starts from some small beginning, like a single drop of water starting a large rainstorm, you cannot speak of cause and effect any more. You can only speak of the probability of something happening."[2]

Hence science, instead of enlarging its domain of positiveness, in many cases narrows it. Even its use of the "rational faculty" is impure: empirical knowledge and *a priori* have never been—nor would they, if possible, be—ruled out of scientific thinking. We know, of course, that history, where the character of the interpretation is determined by "implicitly assumed principles,"[3] cannot deal in pure empiricism since the past cannot be directly observed. Instead of the isolation of science from history, their differences may therefore be better understood as arising from matters of degree and emphasis. Both groups thus jointly pursue as their ideal "that energetic and fruitful impartiality which is inspired by the vision and admiration of truth."[4]

Even the distinction which the author attempts of "simplicity" for the sciences and "complexity" for history and the social sciences must also be treated wtih caution. Conclusions from research in "discrete aspects of reality in isolation" hardly sustain broad generalizations. Science, like the social studies, has its compartments. Exceptional scientists who have troubled themselves to go behind the atomic and energy scenes about which they talk have discovered that the "usual statements about fundamentals make little sense."[5]

IF THE march of science reveals hitherto unsuspected complications and divergences of views in the larger fields of scientific endeavor, is it then fair to hold social science to blame for individual failures to predict correctly in broad areas—such as forecasts on the course of America's post-war economy? Who cannot cite similar errors in the prognostications of scientists when they attempt to tie their microcosms together? And, properly speaking, is the propounding of laws the primary business of the historian?

Furthermore, is not the "consensus found in science" the result of constant revision? Is not the

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From a teacher in Prospect Heights High School in Brooklyn, New York, comes this reaction to an article that appeared in the November issue of *Social Education*. Mr. Alexander is co-author of *New York Today and Tomorrow*.

[1] René Albrecht-Carrié, "The Social Sciences and History," *Social Education*, 16: 315-319; November 1952. All subsequent quotations not otherwise referred to are from this same source.

[2] New York *Herald Tribune*, January 3, 1951.

[3] Morris Raphael Cohen. *The Meaning of Human History*. Illinois: Open Court Publishing Company, 1947. p. 5.

[4] F. P. G. Guizot. *History of the Origin of Representative Government in Europe*. London: 1852. p. 9.

[5] Waldmar Kaempffert, New York *Times* Book Review, November 13, 1952. p. 4. Review of *Modern Science and Modern Man* by James B. Conant.

rewriting of history by each generation—the need to connect our "institutions with our recollections"—due, as Guizot said, to the fact that

> each age receives a vocation to devote itself especially to a particular region of inquiry; but the same studies are to each age as a mine but little explored, or as an unknown territory where objects for discovery present themselves at every step . . . and . . . have . . . innumerable secrets which slowly utter themselves after man has been prepared to recognize them?[6]

Hisory is the composite critic, who permits us with his different points of view uniquely to focus the individual event in time and place "whereby we can criticize present assumptions both ethical and factual."[7]

From this point of view history, while not eschewing its humanistic appeal, obviously maintains a practical outlook. This writer, for one, would trust history, rather than language and literature, for a knowledge of the Russians (to use Dr. Carrié's illustration), because the conscientious historian's approach *is* the open-minded one. If he is "too heavily conditioned by too much knowledge and contemplation of the past," it is an individual failure not to be blamed on a subject which emphasizes a bi-focal view.

[6] Guizot, *op. cit.*, p. 1-3.

[7] Cohen, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

SOCIAL STUDIES PLANNING FOR OLDER CHILDREN

(Continued from page 14)

Individual projects as well as social projects should be encouraged for they can be shared with and appraised by the group. Such procedures tend to reveal individual differences in interests and abilities, both to the individual himself, and to his associates and teacher. There are times when a child surprises himself in what he can do in an area which to him is new. Delight and satisfaction loom large as anyone achieves his first success in an enterprise. The fact that one is "going it alone," in projecting his powers and abilities with the thought that whatever he may accomplish there will be an appraisal by his peers, is at once both stimulating and sobering. The gain or the loss; the approval or disapproval; the disappointment or acclaim will depend upon him. Opportunities to this end are necessary for the development of any wholesome personality. One cannot be a strong member of a group without developing powers and abilities as an individual. The report on an individual enterprise catches the attention of the members of the group. It is novel; they have not been a part of it. Perhaps it holds a secret value. It may lead to new and bigger projects.

The recognition and use of special talents accentuates wholesome differentiation. Pupils can be urged to find and report them. This is a challenge to initiative and to alertness as to potential powers right at hand. What are some of the resources at hand in the community or even in the class? Perhaps there are combinations of talent. How can a class keep on the alert for such talent? Is someone from a foreign country visiting in the home of a pupil? Could a person who is doing an unusual task be persuaded to drop in and describe what he is doing? It may be building a highway, installing a storm sewer, building a barn, painting murals in a library, placing of stained glass windows in a church, growing crops in other climates, public health programs, gathering news for newspapers and radio, celebrations of holidays in foreign countries, foreign customs, and scores of others. If the children can think of possibilities and then manage to secure these special talents, a number of values accrue and, best of all, differing elements enter into the planning for social studies.

U.N.-Ifying the Modern History Course

William Finegold and Milton Finkelstein

THE Modern History course was overcrowded long before World War II and the problems of the postwar world clamored for recognition. In recent years, we have attempted to meet this difficulty by reorganizing the content and by shaving off some of the traditional material. Nevertheless, the problem still remains. We cannot study the past and the present effectively in a period of 18-20 weeks unless we are willing to sacrifice part of one to the other. No course of study that tries to achieve both can maintain unity and meaning for the student.

After more than a year of experimentation, the writers of this article feel that the spotlight of instruction must be on the world today, and that the United Nations forms a natural springboard for the study of the contemporary world. Many of us have undoubtedly been successful in utilizing the present to motivate the study of the past. A better approach would seem to be to focus upon the problems of the present and to utilize the past as a means toward a better understanding of these problems.

The Introductory Unit

OUR experiment started with the Korean crisis. How could one justify a careful study of the French Revolution, Napoleon, nationalism, and other traditional topics when high school students, no less than adults, were absorbed in the Korean war?

Our treatment of the Korean problem was relatively flexible, with considerable differentiation from class to class. The demands of students for background information and for the details of the conflict were given top priority. Where possible, we elaborated upon the Russo-Japanese rivalry for China and Korea, the Japanese victories before 1945, and the attempts of the United Nations to unify the country. Although our textbooks contained little relevant material, the students brought the subject to life with information picked up from radio and television; newspapers and magazines; and relatives and friends, some in the armed forces.

This introductory unit permitted, and at times demanded, great variety in techniques of instruction. A class of able and well-informed students benefited from group discussions and developmental lessons. Some of the boys volunteered special reports. In other classes, newspaper analyses provided differing points of view on current events and the probable future actions of one side or the other. All in all, the Korean crisis resulted in a unit of instruction whose intrinsic vitality gave every student a feeling of personal participation in the analysis of meaningful material.

Of course, the Korean crisis could hardly become the sole topic of the term's work. Having completed our study of this single aspect of the world today, we asked ourselves: "Should we go back to the seventeenth, eighteenth, or nineteenth century and proceed along traditional lines?" To do so would negate the premises that had caused us to begin our course with "Korea." It then occurred to us that the Korean problem might well become the point of entry to the most closely related topic, the United Nations.

By this time, our students were no strangers to the U.N., having studied it in the junior high school and having learned something about its work in the unit on Korea. As the year progressed, the United Nations became the unifying element for the entire course.

The United Nations and World Problems

WE PROCEEDED to the study of the organs of the U.N. and the way they undertake to solve world problems. First consideration,

In this article, the authors describe an experimental course in Modern History. This course was developed by Mr. Finegold and Mr. Finkelstein at the New York School of Printing, a vocational high school in New York City, where both are employed as social studies teachers.

as a continuation of the unit on Korea, was a discussion of the ways of preventing war today, as compared with man's treatment of international conflict in the past. This led to a study of World Wars I and II; and to references to the League, the "balance-of-power" formula and the regional pacts to which the United States is a party.

By this time the students were becoming aware of the intense struggle between nationalism and imperialism, but instead of studying nationalism as a unifying force in Germany and Italy 100 years ago, we examined it as a living force in Asia and Africa today. The new nations formed after World War II provided excellent case studies of the inter-relationships between nationalism and imperialism. We examined their efforts to become independent, self-governing peoples, and to take their places in the United Nations on a basis of equality with other nations. This examination quickly led us to a discussion of the work of the Trusteeship Council.

Among the items that we studied in this connection were the role of the Trusteeship Council in supervising the trust territories, the plans to set up Libya and Eritrea as self-governing states, and finally the assistance given such dependent peoples by ECOSOC and UNESCO. In proper historical context, these arms of the U.N. were treated as a continuation of past attempts to bring to an end the systems of imperialism, similar in their aim to older solutions such as independence and dominion status.

Western imperialism was recognized as a dying phenomenon, with the Western democracies leading in its gradual destruction, albeit reluctantly in some cases. India, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon, Israel, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Indo-China provided abundant proof of this thesis. And treatment of recent events in these areas revealed that the problem of ending imperialism was part of a much larger issue—a struggle soon identified as the "cold war."

This gave rise to several provocative questions. If England and France decided to pull up their stakes in Asia and Africa, would Russia move into the vacuum? How could our students evaluate Russia's aims in the Middle and Far East? What was the Russian system and how did it differ from our own?

Historical Backgrounds

SUCH questions led us to the grand theme of modern history—the struggle between absolutism and democracy. In order to clarify the current aspect of this struggle, careful study was made of the development of the governments of the "Big Four" in the United Nations. England, the United States, and France were presented as varying expressions of the democratic idea in government. Soviet Russia was depicted as a modern example of the absolutism against which mankind has fought through the ages. In each case, we depended upon the historical backgrounds of democracy, fascism, and communism to give meaning to the present-day scene.

The study of English government led us to a careful consideration of the great documents of English liberty. These pointed to the general conclusion that the keys to functioning democracy are a responsible government, free political activity, and the guarantee, in practice as well as in theory, of the civil and political liberties of the people. Within this framework, French history provided additional illustration, with the Old Regime, the Revolution, Napoleon and post-Napoleonic history available to show how unending has been man's struggle for freedom.

Our examination of absolutism began with the story of King John, continued through French history, and culminated in the study of the various forms of absolutism practiced by Louis XIV, Napoleon, the Russian czars, Hitler, Mussolini, and finally Stalin.[1]

Student research projects, with large segments of the school library brought directly into the classroom, formed the core of this unit. These projects included such topics as: "The Vocabulary of Freedom," "The Vocabulary of Government," "Limited and Absolute Monarchies," "Modern Dictatorships," and "A Comparison of Communism and Democracy." All reports were oriented around a student-developed check-list of the characteristics of democratic government.

Although the United Nations is not supposed to take sides in the conflict between democracy and absolutism, since both types of government are represented there, the implications for the future are clear. The Declaration of Human Rights, the Genocide Convention, and the work of UNESCO clearly indicate that the U.N. supports those basic concomitants of democratic life—the dignity of the individual and the worth of a free, inquiring mind.

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[1] The basic aim of this unit was the appreciation of democracy. A continuing application of democratic principles to the daily work of the class is part of this "appreciation." Thus, we placed special stress upon unit procedures and the committee method.

THE Industrial Revolution provided a proper concluding unit for the course. No citizen can properly comprehend the world he lives in unless he is aware of the degree to which industrialization operates as a major force molding the events of the world today. By this stage in their course, the students had become aware of some of the relationships between industrialization and imperialism. They had also observed the desire of newly-formed nations to industrialize themselves. A close study of these nations gave us the opportunity of witnessing, not only the birth of industrialism, but its growth as well.

We took the point of view that the "flying shuttle" and the "spinning jenny," important though they were in the early days of the Industrial Revolution, are relatively unimportant today. We wanted students to appreciate the fact that the Industrial Revolution has not ended, that it is as potent a force today as it was 200 years ago. Stress was therefore placed on changes students themselves could observe—on jet and rocket planes, on television and electronics, on the UNIAC and other computers, on the new era opened by the application of atomic power to the needs of society. The continuing fight on disease was studied in the uses of ACTH, cortisone, and the new antibiotics. The peaceful use of atomic energy was seen again in research projects and treatments involving the use of radioactive isotopes.

Here again the United Nations entered the picture in its efforts to bring the benefits of industrialization to all of the peoples of the world. The work of ECOSOC and the specialized agencies, complemented by the Marshall Plan and Point Four, were seen as the acceptance of the industrialized world of the responsibility to spread its advances to the more backward regions. Thus, the great aim of the U.N., the attainment of peace and security the world over, inevitably included more specific attempts to improve the economic welfare of hundreds of millions of the world's citizens, a large proportion of whom desperately need help.

This closing unit permitted our students to end the course on a note of optimism. The resources of the world are even today largely untapped! Who knows what wonders of living may be in store for us? Who knows but that, with the cooperation of the world's peoples under the aegis of the United Nations, the distressing problems of disease, poverty, and war may yet be solved.

Conclusion

IN THIS course, by dealing with present-day problems, and by tying these to the United Nations, we have been able to secure understanding through historical development. At all times, we have moved from the known to the unknown. Significantly, we have solved for our students the problem of studying current events. No longer must we isolate this aspect of social studies teaching as a "Current Events Lesson," far removed from the regular course of study. Instead, current events are as closely related to the course as any of the textbook assignments. We are studying modern history in the sense that James Harvey Robinson viewed it—as a way of making sense out of the confusions of the world about us.

From the viewpoint of organization, we feel that the greatest advantage of our course has been its flexibility. The sequence in which our units are studied is not set down in advance. Each year, the significant world problems set their own order of precedence, and dictate the development of the course.

Whatever the sequence of study, one important goal of any course in history of the social studies becomes easy of achievement—the pupils learn the meaning and importance of international cooperation and international understanding. As part of each unit in the course, the students' knowledge of the U.N. is enriched. With the U.N. as the point of departure and return, our students leave us equipped with an understanding of its structure and its functioning. More important, their knowledge of the aims and activities of the United States become part of their understanding of the world today. With this emphasis on cooperative solution of pressing problems then, they may become better citizens of their own country and of the world.

Schematic Outline of the Basic Approach

1. Korea or any other current world problem
   ↙ ↙ ↙
2. Leading to the study of the UNITED NATIONS
   ↙ ↙ ↙ ↙
3. Followed by the important problems of the day: IMPERIALISM – NATIONALISM – INDUSTRIALISM –DEMOCRACY–ABSOLUTISM–WAR AND PEACE
   ↙ ↙ ↙ ↙
4. Developing the historical background of each of these problems
   ↙ ↙ ↙ ↙
5. And then returning to the UNITED NATIONS to see what INTERNATIONAL efforts are being made to solve these problems.

Civilization's Most Valuable Resource

Stephen S. Visher

TEACHERS of the social sciences devote considerable effort explaining to their students the conditions conducive to the production of various significant products. But a product more valuable than coal, iron ore, or fertile soil is seldom discussed. That product is wise leadership, the chief basis of civilization.

The subject of leaders brings us to a number of interesting questions, which we shall discuss in turn in the following pages. Which sections of the country have produced the most leaders? What is the relative productivity in leaders of areas that differ in wealth, fertility of soil, topography, and population per square mile? What is the relative productivity of city, town, and country, and of various types of towns and cities and sections of cities? What kinds of homes and what occupational groups, produce most leaders?

Regional Contrasts in Leader Production

ALTHOUGH a considerable number of our leaders were foreign born, most have been born in the northeastern quarter of this country. Of approximately 20,000 American notables studied, New England produced about twice as many in proportion to its population as did the Middle Atlantic or North Central States, nearly three times as many as did the Pacific States, and about six times as many as did the South Central States. A southward decline in the yield of leaders in proportion to population prevailed, not only among the groups of states, but with few exceptions among the individual states. Moreover, states that produced few scientists also produced few artists, administrators, or other leaders.

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What contrasts in the environment correlate with the conspicuous regional differences in the yield of notables? One theory is that the southward decline in the yield of notables reflects the selective effects of winter. The long, cold winter of the more northern states is not to the liking of easy-going people, who are hence more numerous in the South. Consequently, although Missouri and Virginia, for example, have yielded many leaders, their contribution to leadership in proportion to population is notably reduced by their large population of "easily satisfied" people. Abundant evidence, however, indicates that within the northeastern quarter of the United States climatic contrasts alone cannot explain differences in yield of notables. Nearby areas with almost identical climates differ greatly in the yield of notables.

Another often held theory is that "as wealth increases, so does yield of leaders." Relatively rich areas in each of the states studied in detail produced more leaders than did certain poorer ones. But various rich areas have been less productive than some poorer areas. A map of the average wealth per square mile resembles in a general way the map of the yield of notables, but the exceptions clearly suffice to prove that wealth per square mile is not a predominant factor. For instance, the Rocky Mountain States had only about one-third as much wealth as the South Central States, but yielded more than twice as many notables proportionately. When individual states are considered, discrepancies are striking. Thus, Louisiana had nearly twice the wealth per square mile but only one-thirtieth the productivity of Maine. Rhode Island has over twice the wealth of Connecticut but less than half the productivity. If instead of the wealth per area the wealth per capita is considered, there is even less correlation.

AN EMINENT historian once declared "It often seems to be largely a matter of topography; the level lands yield leaders as well as crops, while the rugged lands produce few of either." The inadequacy of that explanation is revealed by detailed studies. For example, in

Ohio, although the hilly northeastern section yielded many leaders, the area which yielded fewest is one of the most rugged in the state, and another area which yielded few is almost level and agriculturally highly productive. In Indiana the most rugged area yielded few notables, but much smooth land did no better. In Illinois, similarly, a large share of the relatively sterile southern section, containing half of the state's population in 1870, is smoother than most of northern Illinois, the birthplace of many notables. In Wisconsin, the relatively hilly unglaciated section yielded few notables, while other hilly areas were productive and some smooth areas were sterile. In Kentucky the most level, fertile part of the state, at the west, yielded few notables. Thus it seems evident that topography is not a major influence.

LET us next consider state of settlement and density of population. It has often been asserted that frontiers cannot be expected to produce leaders as the people are engaged in "hewing homes out of the wilderness." Evidence supporting this theory is an increased yield of leaders in proportion to population in the Midwest from 1860 to 1870 or 1880. Moreover, the southern halves of the population of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota yielded many more notables than the less early developed northern halves. Contrary evidence is the declining yield in proportion to population that has occurred in the Eastern States, and more recently in various parts of the North Central States. Although southern New England was the first American region to pass beyond the agricultural stage, it was in these regards only a little ahead of Pennsylvania, which yielded only one-third as many notables, relatively. Likewise the better lands of the South, from Virginia to Louisiana, attained a relatively high culture long before most of the Midwest did so. In Canada, the first province to become populous, Quebec ranks lowest in the relative yield. Similarly, densely settled Rhode Island was far excelled by rural Vermont in the yield of notables. It thus appears proved that the contrasts in the yield of leaders does not correlate closely with the duration of settlement.

Yield of City, Town and Country

IT HAS often been asserted that most famous Americans were born on farms. On the other hand, certain studies of small groups of eminent people have revealed that relatively many were born in cities. In order to throw light on this question a "special request" was sent to all persons sketched in one edition of *Who's Who in America* to indicate the type of place in which they were born. Replies from 18,400 persons indicate that approximately equal numbers were born on farms, in villages and towns, in small cities, and in large cities or their suburbs.

At the census nearest to the birth of most of these notables, about one-tenth of the people of the United States lived in cities of over 50,000; one-ninth in cities of 8,000 to 50,000; one-twelfth in small places; and almost seven-tenths on farms.

Thus, in proportion to population cities contributed nearly six times as many notables as did farms; villages nine times as many; and suburbs eleven times as many. Of the most eminent group of notables, the largest cities yielded many more than their proportionate numbers.

Especial note was made as to the relative contribution of county seats and college towns. The average county seat yielded notables at about three times the rate of the rest of the state. Likewise, cities and towns which contained colleges had an average productivity of fully twice that of other cities in their states. Approximately one-third of the many starred scientists born in Ohio and Illinois were born in college towns, more than half of those of Kentucky.

In the Midwest, although in 1870 nearly four-fifths of the population was rural, the towns already contained a considerable share of the parents of leaders. As opportunities for gaining a livelihood in the towns and cities increased, progressively larger proportions of the most alert, ambitious people moved to the more attractive cities. But the cities also attracted many manual laborers, so that, in proportion to population, the highly intellectual type commonly forms a smaller percentage, except in choice residential sections and suburbs, than in the smaller county seats. Nevertheless, in the yield of the most outstanding artists, architects, authors and scientists, the large cities led in proportion to population.

From What Sort of Homes Did the Notables Come

THE questionnaire sent to all persons sketched in one edition of *Who's Who in America* asked the occupations of their fathers. The replies revealed that business men and professional men each fathered slightly more than a third of these notables and farmers almost one-fourth. Skilled laborers, however, fathered only a small share, and the vast number of unskilled

laborers fathered almost none of the notables.

In proportion to their numbers in the general population at the 1870 census, professional men fathered more than twice as many notables as business men, nearly twenty times as many as farmers, about forty-five times as many as skilled laborers, and 1,340 times as many as unskilled laborers. Farmers, on the other hand, fathered one-fourth less than their proportionate share, but contributed more than twice as many as did skilled and semi-skilled laborers and seventy times as many as the nearly one-half of the men of the nation who were classed as unskilled laborers.

Thus, as of 1870, only one unskilled laborer in about 38,000 fathered a son or daughter sufficiently noteworthy to win later a place in *Who's Who*. One skilled laborer in 1,300 had that distinction, one farmer in 550, one business man in 62, and one professional man in 27. Exactly one-ninth of the notables reported their fathers were clergymen. In proportion to their numbers, Protestant clergymen contributed four times as many eminent sons as did businessmen, thirty-five times as many as did farmers, and 2,400 times as many as did unskilled laborers.

Why Do Few Homes Yield Leaders?

IT IS therefore apparent that a small portion of the men fathered a large share of the present leaders. The proper interpretation of this concentration is in dispute. Advocates of the theory that environmental influences dominate assert that the classes that produced most leaders did so because they had the best opportunities for cultural and physical development. Conversely, advocates of the theory that hereditary influences are predominant declare that children of unskilled laborers, when adopted into homes of professional men or otherwise given comparable opportunities, nearly always fail to become leaders. They likewise declare that the superior economic status of the fathers of most leaders is the result of their superior qualities of mental alertness, earnestness, ambition, and vitality.

Advocates of the theory that social selection is very important find much support in such data as are here summarized. They point out that the mentally alert people are chiefly found in occupations where their mentality is most advantageous, while the mentally dull are chiefly found in occupations calling for physical strength or routine work. Selection of another type is illustrated by immigrants of exceptional ability. For example, a very considerable number of eminent Americans are of German descent, especially of the liberals who came soon after the unsuccessful revolution of 1848. Scotland, both directly and via north Ireland (the Scotch Irish), also has supplied many ancestors of eminent Americans. But according to much evidence, by far the largest group of American leaders are descendants of emigrants from East Anglia, England, the district which yielded relatively many eminent British and also most of the Puritans of New England, the Quakers, and the Cavaliers of Virginia. The westward spread of the descendants of these immigrants clearly helps to explain the geographical contrasts in the yield of notables. Conversely, their partial submergence numerically by less productive stocks largely produced the subsequent decline in the yield of notables in proportion to population that has occurred in various areas.

Some Conclusions

AREAS which contain most mentally alert, ambitious, persistent, energetic people possessed of high ideals, yield most notables. Such people seek opportunities to use their abilities; they appreciate congenial associates and therefore congregate in desirable towns and choice residential districts or suburbs of cities.

The yield of notables generally correlates with local economic and social conditions. For example, the geographically favored low-land Paris Basin was the birthplace of most French artists. Not a single notable artist was born in the scenic French Alps during a period of three centuries. Likewise, the exceptionally fertile Nashville Basin of Tennessee has been the birthplace of most of the notables born in Tennessee.

Detailed studies here summarized strongly indicate that the physical or geographic environmental influences in as favored a land as America often operate in affecting the concentration of certain types of people rather than directly by affecting diet, occupation, health, and energy. A region relatively poor in resources or climate usually comes, in time, to be peopled largely with those who are relatively lacking in ambition; the more favored areas attract people possessing relatively large amounts of resourcefulness and energy. In the United States, two of these more favored areas are the educational and political centers and the suburbs or choice residential sections of prosperous cities. Notables and their parents are exceptionally mobile, and alert to better their opportunities.

(Continued on page 24)

Stewards of Our Heritage

Winifred Pineo

WE TALK a great deal about good "schoolroom climate" as related to child behavior and accomplishment. A great deal of the warmth of such a climate is generated by a liberal and understanding supervisory staff and a flexible course of study. These two factors made possible our unit on conservation when we studied the North Central States last spring in our fifth grade.

In Ithaca, we live in the shadow of the great New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University in the heart of rich farming country. This environment stimulates an awareness of stewardship in relation to our natural heritage. What teacher could resist sharing that feeling of responsibility with thirty-two eager pupils?

Just as Columbus "arrives" naturally in October and the Pilgrims at Thanksgiving, so spring brings us to a study of the North Central States and the seemingly inevitable flooding of the "Big Muddy." Last spring we undertook a six-weeks' study of the five kinds of land in the North Central States and our responsibilities for their conservation. We divided ourselves accordingly into five groups to deal with (1) Forests and Mines, (2) the Dairylands, (3) the Dust Bowl and the Great Plains, (4) the Ohio Valley and the Ozarks, and (5) the Corn Belt. Each group accepted the responsibility for giving the rest of the class a real picture of his "kind of land."

The Forests and Mines Group did a television show with miners and forest rangers as major characters. The television operator wore earphones made of earmuffs and manipulated a carton on a tripod as a camera. The effect satisfied even the most avid television fans.

The Dairylands Group did short plays about the climate, products, and importance of the products of its area. The members subdivided themselves into farmers and wives from Wisconsin, Michigan, and Minnesota.

The Ohio Valley and Ozarks Group made a papier-mâché map of the area. Some of the members made reports on the soil types, erosion, and methods being used to overcome topsoil loss.

The Corn Belt Group made a picture chart showing the various forms in which corn reaches the market. Individuals gave detailed reports on the importance of the Corn Belt to the life of the nation.

The Great Plains and Dust Bowl Group climaxed the show with experiments demonstrating water and wind erosion as contrasted with the effects of water and wind on covered soil. They used an electric fan, water, and dust (which we found behind books for weeks afterward). To show the effects of water and wind on a contoured and strip-cropped farm, the children used our previously "cultivated land" on the demonstration table. We had used sod for grassland, and radishes (because they grow rapidly) as a row crop. We even had a farm pond and some clay animals and buildings.

BEFORE starting our unit, we did a puppet show with Tom Sawyer as our hero, and music of the period between the acts. This created a good deal of interest in Mark Twain, Huckleberry Finn, the Mississippi River, and Hannibal, Missouri. At one point, we had five copies of "Tom and Huck" being read and handed about. Even a lowly funny book version crept in, giving pleasure to those who read pictures more easily than words.

During the early part of the unit, we took a field trip to the Six-Mile Creek area. There we saw the Ithaca water supply being threatened by water erosion along the banks of the creek where the pipes are buried. The land is bare and deeply gullied. Under the able guidance of the Department of Public Works, the need for terracing and grassing was made dramatically evident to the children.

In order to utilize as fully as possible our

For this brief but pointed article, we are indebted to Mrs. Winifred Pineo, a fifth-grade teacher in the Fall Creek School of Ithaca, New York.

local opportunities, we visited the Ithaca Game Farm where we saw demonstrations of wildlife conservation. Watching a baby pheasant pop out of an egg held in a man's hand was an unforgettable experience for all of us.

Throughout our study, we correlated other learnings with the social studies. Science was very easily related to the conservation aspects of the unit since we studied helpful and harmful animals and insects. Both movies and the radio were used. Reading for content ran naturally as a steady thread during the group investigations for material. The puppet show gave impetus to improved oral reading. Art and music were used to enrich the total study experience.

At the time of the Missouri floods, clippings from the daily newspapers were brought in and read. The flood was followed and recorded from start to finish on the maps and bulletin boards.

WE SPENT some time summarizing the materials acquired and in making a booklet of maps, reports, pictures, clippings, and snapshots. A short test given at the end of the unit showed that almost every child knew that, given bare ground, when the wind blows the dust will fly. One other satisfying indication that some awareness of land use and abuse had been fostered came with "telling-time." Here we got reports of Sunday drives when families saw illustrations of farms with good soil practices and also of farms plowed wastefully. Many children also noticed the eroded condition of our schoolyard bank and suggested that grass might remedy the situation. Shortly after this, a large bag of grass seed appeared in the custodian's storeroom—encouraging evidence that the children were beginning to apply the lessons they had learned.

CIVILIZATION'S MOST VALUABLE RESOURCE

(Continued from page 22)

Notable persons are a product of both environment and heredity, certainly not predominantly of one of these. It is essential that certain physical and mental qualifications be contributed by heredity. But numerous persons who possess the biological potentialities of being notables fail to do so because of unfavorable environmental conditions.

Of the many environmental influences which contribute greatly to the development of leaders, some of the most important are those of the home and community. A person receives from his parents and other ancestors influences which affect his development in numerous subtle ways. Much evidence indicates that the family and community influences combined are vitally important. Hence, in order to increase the number of creatively productive people, there should be an increase in the number of children born and reared in families potentially able to contribute superior qualities both genetically and culturally. One of the ways of bringing about such an increase is to make it more widely realized that such homes are vitally important and that decadence is inevitable if the rearing of the next generation of children is left largely to those who are not well qualified both biologically and culturally.

Most of the leaders queried reported that a teacher had much influence upon their development and subsequent achievement. The great influence of encouragement as a factor in the lives of notables indicates that increased efforts should be made to encourage promising youth. Able, earnest people should receive public recognition and increased opportunities for training and employment.

Finally, there are three things all of us should do: First, encourage our promising students and friends to prepare themselves for leadership. Second, encourage and aid in every way we can those who are now leaders. Third, do our best to increase the number of children reared by parents that are well qualified biologically and culturally to rear future leaders. There obviously is dire need for better comprehension, broader vision, more willingness to serve unselfishly and more stamina. Very few people with these qualities come from families that are poorly qualified biologically and culturally.

School-Wide Observance of Brotherhood Week

Benjamin Starr and Abraham Leavitt

"If civilization is to survive, we must cultivate the science of human relationships—the ability of all peoples, of all kinds, to live and work together, in the same world at peace."

F. D. Roosevelt's last message, April, 1945.

FOR every liberty inherent in the American democratic way of life there must perforce exist a corresponding loyalty; for every right there must be an accompanying duty and for every privilege there is a related responsibility which dare not be evaded. The spirit of Brotherhood Week embracing racial amity and interreligious good will among all regardless of national origin should obviously prevail every day of the year.

The Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights significantly stresses: "The central theme in our American heritage is the importance of the individual person. From the earliest moment of our history we have believed that every human being has an essential dignity and integrity which must be respected and safeguarded. Moreover we believe that the welfare of the individual is the final goal of group life. Our American heritage further teaches that to be secure in the rights he wishes for himself, each man must be willing to respect the rights of other men. This is the conscious recognition of a basic moral principle; that all men are created equal as well as free. . . . We abhor the totalitarian arrogance which makes one man say that he will respect another man as his equal only if he has my race, my religion, my political views, my social position."

It is conceded that the likenesses among men are far greater than their differences. In a study of race problems under the auspices of UNESCO, an international panel of scientists concluded that "(1) The range of mental capacities in all races was much the same; (2) There was no evidence that race mixtures produced biologically bad results; (3) Race was less a biological factor than a social myth; (4) No large modern national or religious group was scientifically speaking a race."

The authors of this article teach social studies in the James Monroe High School in the Bronx, New York. Mr. Starr is chairman of the department.

Program

THE Social Studies Department at James Monroe High School has endeavored to broaden the objectives of Brotherhood Week on an integrated school-wide basis to guide student thinking and action into channels of educationally desirable goals. The authors of this article devoted an entire issue of the *Monroe Bulletin of World Affairs* to the topic "Civil Rights and Responsibilities." This was used last year for schoolwide Guidance Period discussion during the two-week interval beginning February 10 (Negro History Week, February 10-17; Bill of Rights Brotherhood Week, February 17-24). Students in their home room period discussions considered the President's Civil Rights Program, the New York State Ives-Quinn Act against Discrimination, and the Quinn-Olliffe Education Act. Social studies classes considered various aspects of the general theme. The topical outline on "Civil Rights and Responsibilities" has now become a resource unit for use each term in all social studies classes.

Other media were utilized to implement the program. A library exhibit was prepared consisting of posters, pamphlets, and pertinent books. Original cartoons and posters, designed and executed by students, were included in this two-week exhibition. Interesting material was furnished by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, the New York State Commission Against Discrimination, the American Federation of Labor, and the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

At school-wide assemblies our students witnessed the film, "Americans All," a Forum edi-

tion of the *March of Time* series, and other material obtained from the National Conference of Christians and Jews. These were shown as part of the Audio-Visual Aids Program directed by Mr. Frank Alweis and Mr. Philip Rosenblatt. The films were run off by Mr. George Pedro, Laboratory Assistant.

The State Commission Against Discrimination sent speakers who addressed economics classes on problems related to the interpretation and enforcement of the Quinn-Ives Act. Students were "briefed" in advance for these lectures by reading pamphlets published by the State Commission. The film, "An Equal Chance," which describes the work of the Commission with actual case histories, was shown to these classes.

Reaction

THE response to our Brotherhood Program was most encouraging. The following procedures illustrate the means by which James Monroe High School became more "brotherhood conscious." (1) Teachers assigned over 3000 students to visit the Library Brotherhood Exhibit and to prepare reports on its outstanding features. This material was found to be particularly suitable for the non-academically minded students. (2) The films, "Americans All" and "Make Way for Youth," which present the Youth Council of Madison, Wisconsin were received enthusiastically. (3) The enlightenment resulting from the talks made by the representatives from the State Commission Against Discrimination was one of the best features of the program. Both students and teachers were most favorably impressed by their ability to present a vivid and informative account of the operation of the New York law well within the comprehension of all our students. This met a well-felt need of our young people, many of whom contemplate seeking positions in industry after graduation. (4) The provisions of the Quinn-Ives Act and the Quinn-Olliffe Act have been incorporated into our syllabi in civics, economics, and American History.

One of the important features of the program was a carefully developed topical discussion outline on the subject, "Civil Rights and Responsibilities." Copies of this outline, revised in the light of current developments, will be distributed to all social studies teachers in the school some time before the 1953 observance of Brotherhood Week. The following brief digest of the outline indicates the nature and direction of our thinking.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

I. Should President Truman's Civil Rights Program be enacted by the present Congress? Justify your answer.
II. What can be done to promote better understanding among members of different racial and religious groups by (a) me as an individual, (b) our school community, (c) the greater community—city, state, nation?
III. The problems of discrimination can be solved more effectively in the long run only by education rather than by legislation. Give arguments for and against this conclusion.

DEMOCRATIC CONCEPTS

I. The American Way of Life: Liberty and Justice for All. . . .
II. Characteristics of the Democratic Way of Life. . . .
III. The Nine Promises of a Good Citizen. . . .

PRESIDENTIAL CIVIL RIGHTS PROGRAM

I. The President's Proposals
II. The Debate Over the President's Proposals. . . . Arguments in favor of adoption . . . Arguments against adoption. . . .
III. President Eisenhower's Proposals. . . . Arguments for and against. . . .

AMERICA'S RACE PROBLEM: EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR NEGROES

I. Race Prejudice is Unfinished Business of Democracy. . . .
II. Outstanding Negro Contributions to American Culture. . . .

PROGRESS IN EXTENSION OF CIVIL RIGHTS

I. Action by the United Nations. . . .
II. Federal Action. . . .
III. Decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court on Civil Rights. . . .
IV. Advances in New York State. . . .

[1] We regret that space limitations prevent publication of the complete outline. Mimeographed copies are available however upon request. Write to Mr. Starr or Mr. Leavitt, James Monroe High School, Boynton Ave. and 172nd St., Bronx 72, New York City.

—The Editor

Teachers interested in securing material for Brotherhood Week may write to the National Council of Christians and Jews, Inc., 381 Fourth Ave., New York 16, New York.

Democracy in the Fourth Grade

Barbara Clancy

THIS project began with our reading the *Weekly Reader,* which featured vignettes of our two presidential candidates. During the informal discussion about the two men, questions began to arise concerning the "how" and "why" of elections. My fourth graders began firing questions at me almost faster than I could answer them. "How did they get to be candidates?" "Who can vote for them?" "How do you vote?" "Where do you vote?"

Since interest was so great and since the time seemed so appropriate, we decided to hold our own election to find the answers to our questions.

Because voting for Adlai Stevenson and Dwight Eisenhower seemed a little remote for my children and since their knowledge of the issues was naturally limited, we decided to vote for our own class officers, president and vice-president.

We drew up a slate of six presidential candidates and five vice-presidential candidates by nominations from the class. We used these factors in determining eligibility: Was the candidate a legitimate member of the class; for example, had he been promoted or admitted according to all requirements? Was the candidate a good and loyal citizen of the class as well as the school? And, had the candidate shown a willingness to learn and cooperate?

We then discussed the procedures involved in "registering" to vote. After the class was satisfied with the "hows" and "whys" of registration, we designated a Registrar, drew up registration cards and a registration book and set the time, place and requirements for registering.

Registration was orderly and a little solemn and that Friday afternoon my fourth graders trouped home proudly holding their "registration cards."

This description of a fourth grade project was written by Mrs. Barbara Clancy, a teacher in the Myles J. McManus School in Linden, New Jersey.

THE following week, time was allotted each morning for "campaign speeches" and soon the "candidates" came to school laden with their banners, posters and campaign buttons which they had made out of paper and fastened to the "voters" buttonholes with straight pins.

Excitement mounted as the campaign speeches progressed and some of the promises such as "parties every Friday" and "a lot of Story Hours by Mrs. Clancy" ran true to political form.

On Friday, "Election Day," the class was excited, and speculated as to the winners. We had planned the final radio broadcast complete with microphone and commercials and each of the candidates gave his last speech.

Then, row by row, the class filed up to the Registrar and presented their cards, signing their names again for the "record." A minor catastrophe occurred when one little girl couldn't locate her registration card and almost burst into tears. The class was so disturbed over her not being eligible to vote without her card, that they all feverishly searched the classroom until it was located and she took her place in line before our "voting booth" clutching the precious paper in her hand.

After each one had cast his vote, which was done by checking the names of two candidates on our "election ballot" and slipping it into our sealed cigar box, they all sat back to await the "returns."

Half-way scores were posted on the board and finally the tellers were ready with the results. They wrote the final totals on the board and the two flushed winners came forward and gave their "acceptance speeches" which were really very touching because of the sincerity and solemnity with which they were given.

If the intense and sincere interest in our election system displayed by our children is fostered and encouraged throughout the years, we can see in the not too far distant future a well informed electorate turning out to vote in even larger numbers than in our recent record-shattering election.

Why Do We Have Wars?

J. R. Skretting

FOR years men have disliked the use of war. Frequently the alternatives offered to open violence have been idealistic and unsatisfactory suggestions for eliminating war. These have been reflected all too often in high school textbooks and teaching approaches. Alternatives usually suggested include disarmament, neutrality, pacifism, and international organization for its own sake. What has not been sufficiently realized is that at the present stage of international development war is often the only means a country has to protect its security and vital interests or to remedy an injustice in the situation which exists (*status quo*) resulting from new conditions. If war is not the most desired means of accomplishing change (and few feel it is), then the solution is *not* to outlaw it, but to provide substitutes—peaceful ways to meet the needs for change in the *status quo* without the necessity of resorting to open violence. This is the challenge which must be understood by teachers instructing in problems of international relations. Since the challenge of peaceful change has been quite successfully met on the national level, it would seem valuable to make comparisons and contrasts between the two levels of political activity.

Vital interests are not peculiar to nation states on the international level, but are also found within countries where claims of two or more persons or groups frequently become mutually exclusive. On both levels the "stuff of politics is conflict and adjustment." On either level, if opposing vital interests of two strong parties are not to result in conflicts involving aggression, there must be some means besides war available to make adjustments. A study of the conditions and methods in existence on the national level, both to resolve conflicts of right occurring within the scope of current law and to allow for changes in "right" in light of new circumstances, might well yield an insight valuable in terms of a more satisfying and realistic approach to international relations.

The author, who did his graduate work in political science at The University of Iowa, is an assistant professor of education at the University of North Carolina. Formerly secretary-treasurer of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies, he is currently a member of the National Council's Professional Relations Committee.

Settlement of Conflict on the National Level

DIFFERENCE of opinion and desire for change in *status quo* exist aplenty within nations. Generally little heed is paid when these opinions are expressed by powerless individuals or groups. However, conflicts resulting from personal or group interests of the stronger must be successfully coped with if the community is to avoid open dissension and violence. The community must be able to reconcile change and progress with stability. In studying how these conflicts are settled, two approaches will be made: (1) What are the conditions (attitudes) in existence that permit peaceful settlement, and (2) What are the methods (organization) used to attain adjustment short of open violence?

Conditions Promoting Peaceful Settlement

ON THE national level a definite "climate" favoring peace exists which is not found on the international level. Within the United States, for example, there is a common desire to maintain peace at all costs. This is true because each citizen has subordinated his many group interests to the welfare of the whole—the good of the majority. This feeling has been made possible because Americans realize their interdependence and that all parts of society are fairly well integrated. Out of the existence of this integration has developed a "community" which people recognize as such and to which they give sincere loyalty. It has common symbols and goals, common language, a common morality, and common political heritage.

Why is there a lack of desire to break the peace within this national community? Because for the most part it meets the needs of its members both in providing for security and justice and in allowing for change. Where values are widespread (as with freedom of speech), it is assumed that

these values will be safeguarded to all. Where individuals have special interests, institutions respected by all have been established to hear of those interests, evaluate them, and recognize them if a sufficient number deem them worthy. Growing out of the community feeling on the national level is a provision for decisions based on majority rule which are acceptable by all. This means that when conflictive interests are presented, the concept of majority rule results. Once the prevailing viewpoint is determined, then military power—if need be—is on the side of majority decision.

Methods of Attaining Peaceful Settlement

SOMETIMES the present situation is no longer acceptable to the majority. When this is the case, provision for change must be provided for within the structure of any dynamic society if it is to preserve itself. That this is realized and accepted is most important. What then is the machinery available to provide for adjustments and to allow for growth while at the same time maintaining security?

If public opinion in conflict with the *status quo* is sufficiently strong to produce a major power conflict, the social forces usually seek change through changing the law. Legislative procedure is the key way national governments have to provide for absolving disputes peaceably, for the legislature is really "an arena within which the struggle for power goes on." In this branch of government, the conflict over changing the *status quo* takes the form of resolving the question by vote in the legislative body—to keep the law, alter it, or throw it out. Another method of peaceful change closely allied with the legislative method is through elections. Here representatives of different points of view on varying issues cast conflict into a process which presupposes the possibility of peaceful transfer of political power from one group to another. Without such an institution as elections, open violence would be more possible.

In addition to the legislative and balloting methods, there exist other methods in the executive and judicial branches of government. The administration plays a part in keeping tab of the public pulse and using executive leadership, insofar as possible, to keep the legislative program in line with public opinion. But of greater import, there exists within the nation state two forms of enforcement to maintain peace. The more primitive, but still very effective, is control by social pressure growing out of the community climate. If the decisions have been made by majority rule, the people themselves will then participate in the enforcement of decisions. However, when social pressure is not sufficient, power and force are monopolized in the hands of the executive branch to go to work. It shoulders the responsibility for upholding the *status quo*, and eliminating fear of instability and chaos. On the domestic level it is a foregone conclusion that a government could not exist if it renounced the monopoly of violence.

Another possibility for peaceful settlement rests with the judicial branch of the government. The more informal semi-judicial media include conciliation, mediation, and arbitration which are all frequently used in labor disputes. These are the relatively less important, however. On the national scene adjudication is the most powerful, but the *exact* role of the judicial branch is disputed among writers. There are some who point up the power of the bench in judge-made law to help in this settlement of disputes. Most, however, feel courts have the prime responsibility of stabilizing the *status quo* as shaped by the legislature and public sentiment combined.

ON THE INTERNATIONAL SCENE

Conditions of Peace

HOW do the foregoing conditions and methods transfer over to the international scene? In comparing and contrasting the conditions, several differences are to be noted. First and foremost, there exists on the international level no moral consensus and lack of desire to break the peace. This is directly conditioned by the fact that there is no international community attracting loyalty superior to that of sectional allegiance. The seventy-odd nation states possess nothing approaching world patriotism, common morality, common language, common political heritage, or common goals. Although there is definitely a growing sense of interdependence, there is still a lack of integration which is vital to bringing into play an international legal system. Without this international community there can exist no common concept of justice or security. International society does not now allow for majority rule on vital issues to provide these concepts and safeguard them by force if necessary.

Methods of Change

IN INTERNATIONAL society, as in the nation, conflicts are latent or active. The dynamic nature of the world demands that changes

be made—changes even more explosive and disruptive. For the most part, these changes cannot be made without violence, because as yet there is no legislative or election method capable of allowing for peaceful decision and change. As H. Lauterpacht stated, there is no "over-riding legislation" yielding peaceful change where numerical superiority is involved and consent of the great state is not required. States may submit to a form of negotiation, but do not oblige themselves to heed the decisions. Since, therefore, each nation holds tightly to its sovereignty as its main source of basic security, the true concept of legislation to modify the status quo is impossible.

Further, since there exists no real executive branch capable of wielding an international preponderance of force, there is no control adequate to maintain the peace or restrain open conflict except that which, through power, the individual state can commend by itself or in alliance with friendly states. This dependence on the individual state to provide security for itself and its citizens means that a balance of power mechanism is the best possible way now to protect vital interests. Any world stability thus achieved is usually favorable to *status quo* countries, and as long as power must be the supreme value, continued peace is dubious.

What possibilities then do exist now for peaceful things? There is a skeleton of government in the U.N., but it is really only "methods" in a climate void, lacking the life blood of authority. The United Nations General Assembly does offer an opportunity to throw conflict into the arena of discussion, but offers no opportunity for a decision on the basis of numerical majority acceptable by all. Also, some secondary conflicts can be resolved in specialized agencies and commissions under the Economic and Social Council. In addition, many of the organs under ECOSOC are helping to develop a world community. Interestingly enough, the means for peaceful settlement most frequently referred to as effective is the judicial one—the most ineffective way to absolve nations' disputes peacefully! Here are included the more crude methods of negotiation (conciliation and mediation) and arbitration. Some international law exists, but mostly to meet secondary problems. Also, the only sources for international law are in custom and treaty, for there is no legislative arm. An embryonic court system is also present; however, it is even more restricted to stabilizing the *status quo* on the international level where judge-made law is less well developed than is true domestically.

The Challenge

COMPARISON and contrast of the various conditions and methods available for settlement of power conflicts short of open violence on the international level with those available on the national level is not a particularly happy one. Without the prior existence of an international community, there can be few of the conditions necessary for bringing about a lasting system of peaceful settlement. Without a strong international force there is no sure way to enforce peace or provide for security except through the power of the individual state and its allies. Without the world state or an adequate world community, there can be no successful provision for peaceful adjustment of injustices, and provision, therefore, for change. And so it seems that present diplomatic procedure utilizing balance of power and ultimately war to effect real change cannot now be replaced! It offers the only practical way. In the long run, an organization for peace *must* be developed—not only designed to prevent war, but with effective resources to remove those inequalities which great nations just will not endure peaceably.

But how is that alternative to be accomplished? Diplomacy, balance of power, and perhaps war seems necessary at the present to maintain security and provide for change. What is needed is to bring into being conditions and methods on the international level similar to those available on the national level. Since international law and legal systems must exist *within* a community instead of producing it, the initial work now seems to be to that end of building toward a world community with an international climate and world patriotism. There must be a genuine all-around interest in world betterment. With this must come both a widespread and popular disinclination on the part of leaders to break the peace and also virtually an inability to do it. Once that is more a reality, then the institutions of international government can begin to function. With them will come the methods for peaceful change and provisions for remedy under justice. Until such a time when a real amount of sovereignty is given to an international body, the embryonic means must be used and improved upon as much as can be. That includes tackling each problem separately through diplomacy, use of the international conference, and strengthening of the U.N. But power and war yet hold the final threat and may for many years.

The challenge to the teachers arises from this

(Continued on page 48)

Notes and News

NCSS President Visits West

In the Notes and News columns of the December issue of *Social Education,* the first part of President Aldrich's trip to the West was reported. Following is the report on the remainder of his trip to the time of his arrival in Dallas for the Annual Meeting of the NCSS.

Two meetings with Long Beach, California, teachers were arranged by Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Theron Freese. Mr. Aldrich was entertained and introduced by Dr. William E. Keeley, Supervisor of Senior High School Education.

In addition to addressing two Institute sessions in Los Angeles, the NCSS President was the guest of the officers and Board of Directors of the Southern California Social Science Association at a dinner meeting at the Ambassador Hotel on October 13. The dinner was arranged by SCSSA President Thelma Nelson of the Los Angeles Public Schools. Among those present was Miss Cecilia Irvine, former President of the SCSSA and formerly editor of their *Review Bulletin.*

Four sessions were addressed by Mr. Aldrich in Los Angeles County, arranged by Reuben Palm, Assistant Superintendent of Schools of Los Angeles County, long an active member of the NCSS and formerly a member of the NCSS Civic Education Committee. One session was held at the Citrus High School in Azusa, one in Whittier-Rivera at the new El Rancho High School, and two were held in Lancaster on the edge of the Mohave Desert.

In Orange County, meetings were arranged by Willard H. Saucerman, Director of Instruction, Orange County Schools. The NCSS President met with the Superintendent and the instructional staff to discuss the teaching of current affairs, especially the UN and UNESCO. Later, he addressed Institutes at Newport Beach and at Anaheim. He was introduced by James Tye, President of the Orange County Social Studies Association.

From Los Angeles, President Aldrich went to the San Francisco Bay region. On October 28 he spoke to the social science and education faculties of San Francisco State College under the sponsorship of Donald M. Castleberry of the social science division and Lavone Hanna of the education division.

On October 28, President Aldrich spoke at the first general meeting of the San Francisco Council of Social Studies Teachers and was introduced by President Clarence A. Leal. Following the meeting he was entertained by the officers and Board at a dinner at The Shadows, on the side of Telegraph Hill in old San Francisco. Mr. Aldrich was also the guest of Board member John U. Michaelis and several of the University of California faculty at the Faculty Club in Berkeley.

On November 5, the NCSS President spoke to the Oakland Social Studies Council as a guest of President Herbert Marsh of McChesney Junior High School. This was the third meeting of the year of the Oakland Council.

The Curriculum Staff of the San Diego County Schools was addressed by Mr. Aldrich on November 7, and the Social Studies Curriculum Council met with him that afternoon. This meeting was arranged by Superintendent Cecil D. Hardesty, Curriculum Coordinator Burton C. Tiffany and with the assistance of Robert Burress of the County Schools Staff.

On November 8, NCSS President Aldrich gave the greetings of the National Council to the Southern California Social Science Association at their Annual Meeting. He pointed out that it was through the work of such local, regional, and state organizations that the program of the improvement of social studies instruction will be carried on. He called attention to the fact that the Southern California Association, organized in 1911, was older than the National Council.

Four meetings in Tucson, Arizona, were held from November 12 to 14, including sessions at the University of Arizona and in the Tucson Public Schools. These were arranged by Mrs. Alice Fulmer Dunham with the assistance of Victor Keely of the University of Arizona.

In Phoenix, Arizona, a meeting of elementary and secondary teachers was arranged by Winona Montgomery of the Phoenix Public Schools on November 17.

The final session before the Dallas meeting was held in Albuquerque at the University of New Mexico campus on November 21. This meeting of school and University social studies people was arranged by Dorothy Woodward and Kathleen McCann of the University of New Mexico.

President Aldrich feels that these visits to councils and to groups of teachers in many parts of the country has been a significant professional experience. He finds interest in cooperative study of problems of social studies instruction high in all the cities visited. The groups met seemed much interested in the work of the National Council and its Curriculum Series and in the summaries of promising practices of social studies instruction. In most of the communities visited, both elementary and secondary teachers met together.

Connecticut

The Connecticut Social Studies Teachers Association held luncheon meetings in Bridgeport and Hartford for Connecticut teachers on Convention Day, October 31, 1952. Mrs. Katherine Vargas, New London High School, President of the CSSTA, presided at the Hartford meeting at which Kenneth Cragg from England spoke on "The Thousand and One Years—The Middle East in 1952." Dr. Cragg was in the East from 1939 to 1947, and at present is head of the Arabic Department at the Hartford Seminary Foundation and is editor of the *Muslim World*. Arrangements for the meeting were made by Gladys Gage, Noah Webster School, Hartford, and Howard Goody, Hall High School, Hartford.

At the Bridgeport meeting, Lloyd S. Goodrow of the FBI spoke on "The History and Development of the FBI." Alanson Harper, Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, and Dora Milenky, Crosby High School, Waterbury, were in charge of the arrangements for the meeting. M.H.

Sabine Area Council

The Sabine Area Council for the Social Studies held its first meeting on November 4 in Beaumont, Texas, at the Lamar State College of Technology. Mrs. Sidney Pietzsch, president of the group, presided at the business meeting opening the session. This was followed by three discussion groups based on grade levels. At the elementary section, Mrs. Lee Oma Kerr, Fletcher School, Beaumont; Zelma Lee Davis, Junker School, Beaumont; and Mrs. Helen Coy, Longfellow School, Beaumont, served as discussion leaders and Mrs. Ruth Olcott, Lamar Tech, was the group consultant. At the junior high section, J. M. Montgomery, Principal, Amelia School, served as consultant and discussion leaders were: Vivian Liddell, Dowling School, Beaumont; Mrs. Holloman, Vidor; and Mrs. Ruth Cobbs, McArthur School, Beaumont. In the senior high group, the discussion leaders were: Anna Marie duPerier, Beaumont High School; Jewell Holliman, Senior High School, Port Arthur; and J. R. Johnson, Stark High School, Orange; and the consultant to the group was A. W. Shannon, Director of Curriculum, Beaumont. The final session was a dinner meeting at which F. L. McDonald, President, Lamar State College of Technology, addressed the group.

N.K.B. and E.R.B.

ATSS

Teacher-Supervisor Relations. Teachers and supervisors found a wide area of agreement in a critical discussion of teacher-supervisor relations conducted by the Association of Teachers of Social Studies of New York at a recent meeting.

David Lane, of Prospect Heights High School, led off with the observation that supervisors come into the classrooms "to find something wrong"; that is the visit is usually over-valued and what is seen is usually more of a show than it is representative; that the "visit" underlines the lack of professional maturity in our field—years of experience contend with a surfeiting of pedagogical theory.

As regards the written report following the observation, Mr. Lane felt that a very large percentage of teachers consider it anti-climactic and irritating. Criticisms are often picayune, harsh, or irrelevant. Teachers, he concluded, regard these reports as the weakest of all devices to improve teaching.

Lucian Lamm, chairman of the social studies department at the Bronx High School of Science, strongly defended the classroom visits by departmental chairmen and their written reports on what they observed. Dr. Lamm attributed the low morale in the school system to factors other than classroom visits by supervisors.

Dr. Samuel P. McCutchen, chairman of social studies at the NYU School of Education, observed that both teachers and supervisors might be losing sight of the children's interests in their differences over reports and observations. He urged more teamwork within the schools.

In the general discussion that followed, most of the teachers present agreed that written reports contribute little to improvement of teaching. Other important factors affecting the relations of teachers and department chairmen were mentioned, including cooperation in the revision

of curricula and "rotation" in difficult assignments.

Dr. Howard L. Hurwitz, president of the association, was chairman of the meeting.

Schools and Society. No one remotely connected with professional education can be unaware of the critical attacks—concerted or otherwise—upon the school system for its alleged neglect of moral and spiritual training.

However, it was apparent to many that the schools should not be made the scapegoat; that ours is not the sole job of guiding the young.

Specifically, the Association of Teachers of Social Studies posed the question, "Is the Community Helping the Public Schools to Build Character?" at its general membership meeting, November 14, at City College, New York.

Speakers included Professor Ward Madden of the Department of Education, Brooklyn College, Francis A. Turner, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Community Education, and Judge Charles F. Murphy of the Magistrates' Courts in Queens. A.A.

New England Citizenship Conference

The New England Conference on Citizenship Education held at the Teachers College of Connecticut in New Britain November 15 was sponsored by the New England Social Studies Teachers Association, the Connecticut Social Studies Teachers Association, the Citizenship Education Center of Teachers College of Connecticut, the Connecticut State Department of Education and the School of Education, University of Connecticut. These groups joined forces under the chairmanship of Victor E. Pitkin, Connecticut State Department of Education, who headed the Planning Committee for the Conference. This was the first of a series which the New England Social Studies Teachers Association has planned for the academic year 1952-53 to acquaint people with recent developments in citizenship education and the various citizenship education studies. The other two meetings will be held in Worcester and Boston, Massachusetts, with the cooperation of other interested groups.

At the New Britain conference there were reports on the activities of Syracuse University in citizenship education, the Citizenship Education Project at Columbia University, and the Connecticut Citizenship Education Center. A film was shown at the luncheon meeting, followed by discussion groups. H.B. and H.S.

Decatur Council

The officers of the Decatur (Illinois) Council for the Social Studies met on September 24 and made plans for the four meetings to be held during the year.

The first meeting held on October 22 in Decatur opened with a business meeting and was followed by a debate on the question "Is the UN Worth the Cost?" The question was debated by prominent local citizens. The second meeting held on November 18 dealt with the theme "Economic Education" with Mary Traylor, Audrey Bower, Mary Fanti, and Virginia Schoby as participants.

The third meeting will be held in February during Brotherhood Week, and the program will be provided by members of the Decatur Citizen's Commission on Human Relations. Plans for the April meeting are not yet definite. M.R.M.

South Piedmont District

At the South Piedmont District Meeting of Social Studies Teachers in Charlotte, North Carolina, on October 24, Carlton C. Jenkins, formerly director of social studies in the North Carolina State Department of Education, now at Myers Park High School, spoke on "The Problems Approach to Teaching Units in the Social Studies." Among the participants were Jonathon C. McLendon and William B. Hamilton of Duke University, and J. R. Skretting, University of North Carolina.

Officers of the group for 1953-54 are: president, Donald I. Newman, Charlotte; vice-president, Mrs. T. M. Purkey, Hickory; and secretary, Ethel M. McDonald, Charlotte. At the principals' division meeting, William H. Cartwright, Duke University, was the guest speaker. E.M.McD.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Muriel Hart, Mary Katherine Baxter and Evelyn R. Byrd, Albert Alexander, Henry Borger and Henrietta Scott, Melvin R. Matthew, Ethel M. McDonald.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Foreign Affairs

Major Problems of United States Foreign Policy—1952-1953 (The Brookings Institution, Washington 6: 412 p. 1952. $2) is the sixth in a series of annual analytical surveys in which an effort is made to present an over-all view of the world situation, to analyze the position of the United States in world affairs, and to examine the main problems of foreign policy that lie ahead. Well organized for reference purposes and comprehensive in its coverage, this volume is written with scholarly competence and should have particular appeal to the serious student of world affairs.

Prepared by the Division of International Conferences of the U. S. Department of State, *Participation of the United States Government in International Conferences—July 1, 1950-June 30, 1951* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: Department of State Publication 4571. 317 p. 1952. 65 cents) summarizes the proceedings and lists the personnel of United States delegations of more than 100 international conferences in which our government participated in the year ending June 30, 1951. The mere listing of the conferences, each of which involved the governments of at least three nations, is impressive testimony of the extent to which our government is attempting to cooperate with other nations in a wide variety of areas.

Still in its first year of publication, *Field Reporter* is a bi-monthly periodical published by the U. S. Department of State. Its articles present information on developments in educational, cultural, scientific, technical, and other phases of international cooperation as an arm of United States foreign policy. Having an attractive format and an abundance of appropriate illustrations, *Field Reporter* emphasizes activities in the field at the operational level. A year's subscription may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 25, for $1.50; or a sample copy will be sent upon request by the Division of Publications, Department of State, Washington 25.

Background is a series of brief, informative pamphlets published by the U. S. Department of State designed to present the facts behind the problems and situations affecting U. S. foreign policy. These leaflets, having eight or more double-column pages, normally include photographs or maps, and may be purchased from the U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. Recent issues include:

Yugoslavia: Titoism and U. S. Foreign Policy (Department of State Publication 4624. 5 cents)
Export Controls and Free World Security (Department of State Publication 4626. 5 cents)
Iran: Point of World Interest (Department of State Publication 4628. Rev. 1952. 5 cents)
Free India: New Pattern in Asian Democracy (Department of State Publication 4652. 10 cents)

An official account of life in the Soviet zone of Germany is presented in *East Germany Under Soviet Control,* an illustrated booklet depicting the practices by which the Soviet Union controls the people of its zone by terrorism and violent propaganda (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: Department of State Publication 4596. 95 p. 35 cents).

The U. S. Foreign Service—a Career For Young Americans (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: Department of State Publication 4559. 15 cents) is a booklet designed to interest young men and women in making a lifework of representing their government in foreign service. It tells how the Foreign Service functions and describes the requirements for entering it.

Guide to the United States and the United Nations (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: Department of State Publication 4653. 21 p. 1952. 15 cents) is primarily a chronological listing of significant events in connection with the U.N., beginning with the Atlantic charter in 1941. Also listed are current United States representatives to the U.N. At the end is a useful three-page bibliography listing inexpensive background material on the U.N. and other international organizations.

Published by the United Nations Department of Public Information, *Looking at the United*

Nations (Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27. 32 p. 1952. 50 cents) is a pictorial representation of the work of the U.N. up to the end of 1951. The numerous photographs have been strikingly arranged and carefully reproduced so as to be both interesting and informative.

Foreign Policy Association

The Foreign Policy Association (22 East 38th St., New York 16) continues to produce materials of considerable value to secondary-school teachers and students. The *Foreign Policy Bulletin* is an eight-page leaflet that provides up-to-date analyses of current international affairs. Its articles are stimulating, scholarly and informative, and represent the views of a considerable variety of contributors. Published twice each month, the *Bulletin* may be purchased on a subscription basis of $4 per year, while individual copies cost 20 cents each.

The Headline Series of pamphlets, now approaching its 100th title, deals with various aspects of contemporary world affairs. The pamphlets are generally of continuing value and should appeal to high school students as well as teachers. The latest of this series to be released at the time of this writing is by Henry Alfred Holmes, *Mexico: Land of Great Experiments* (No. 94 of the Headline Series. 62 p. 35 cents). So that Americans can better understand the Mexico of today, the author, currently a resident of Mexico City, surveys the history of Mexican development and analyzes the far-reaching political, economic and social readjustments growing out of the great experiments that reflect the spirit of modern Mexico.

Regular membership in the Foreign Policy Association costs $6 per year and carries with it a subscription to all issues of the *Bulletin* and the Headline Series. There are also special student memberships at $3.50, as well as special quantity rates for publications of the Association.

Statistics Unlimited

Although far too many of us at one time or another have been guilty of using statistics in the manner of the proverbial drunkard who uses the lamp post for support rather than illumination, statistics nevertheless serve as an increasingly valuable source of data for social and historical analysis. *The World Almanac*, of course, continues to be one of our least expensive sources of reasonably accurate statistical information. Somewhat more authoritative and certainly more comprehensive in the coverage of statistical data for the United States are three volumes that can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25:

Statistical Abstracts of the United States—1951, now in its 72nd edition (1,047 p. $3)
Historical Statistics of the United States—1789-1945 (363 p. $2.50)
Handbook of Labor Statistics (B.L.S. No. 1016. 240 p. $1.25)

Although the *Statistical Abstract*, in addition to its wealth of data on contemporary America, also includes a great deal of historical information, the volume on *Historical Statistics* was designed as an historical appendix or supplement to the *Abstract* and should prove to be of considerable value to history teachers.

Documents on American History

Concerning Richard D. Heffner's *A Documentary History of the United States* (The New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave., New York 22: 288 p. 1952. 35 cents), Dr. David A. Shannon, assistant professor of history at Teachers College, Columbia University, has this to say:

> This is another useful volume in the inexpensive paper-backed Mentor Book series. These 35 documents, mostly political and ranging from the Declaration of Independence to the Marshall Plan, are prefaced by brief but adequate introductions. There is nothing like the comprehensiveness of Henry S. Commager's *Documents of American History*, or the Commager and Nevins *The American Heritage*, but for 35 cents it is a bargain that should be especially attractive to teachers in schools with poor libraries.

Natural Resources

Resources for Freedom is a five-volume report of the President's Materials Policy Commission. Published in June, 1952, this report looks ahead to 1975 in its analysis of the use of, demands on, and conservation of our natural resources. The five volumes can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, and are issued under the following titles:

Foundations for Growth and Security (Vol. I. $1.25)
The Outlook for Key Commodities (Vol. II. $1.50.)
The Outlook for Energy Resources (Vol. III. 50 cents)
The Promise of Technology (Vol. IV. $1.75)
Selected Reports to the Commission (Vol. V. $1.25)

The first, third and fourth volumes are probably the most useful. None of them makes particularly easy reading, and much of the volume

on technology requires some background and interest in natural science for reasonable comprehension and appreciation. Yet, it is that volume which may well have the greatest implications for the social scientist in the next 25 years.

Tools for Human Relations

Edited by Edwin S. Newman of the American Jewish Committee staff, Tools for Human Relations is a pamphlet series designed to make available to the American public the knowledge and experience which derives from a good number of successful community relations projects throughout the country. Each booklet is illustrated with photographs and cartoon-type drawings, and is written with an abundance of concrete detail. They should prove stimulating, particularly for teachers whose work involves study of the community or community activities. The pamphlets are 34 pages in length and may be purchased for 20 cents each from the American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16. The titles currently available are: *Schools and Neighbors in Action; Fair Employment Works;* and *The Community Is Good Business.* Forthcoming pamphlets will deal with *Better Housing for Everyone; Laboratories in Human Relations;* and *Religion: Force for Unity.*

Discussion Guides

The Center for Information on America (Washington, Conn.) is now in its second year of producing a series of four-page Future Voters Discussion Guides. Each guide is graphically illustrated, presents basic information on a particular issue, and offers suggestions for leading a discussion of that issue. The guides are published monthly during nine months of the school year. Although individual subscriptions cost $1 five or more subscriptions to the same school cost only 50 cents each per year. Past leaflets have dealt with such issues as the method of electing our president, how to bring out the vote, the advisability of lowering the voting age to eighteen, the program of highway traffic accidents, and corruption in public life.

Labor Relations

The Institute of Industrial Relations of the University of California was created in part to contribute public information and understanding in the field of industrial relations. To implement this aim, the Institute has published a series of popular pamphlets, one of which is *Hours of Work* by William Goldner (Institute of Industrial Relations, 201 California Hall, University of California, Berkeley 4: 63 p. 1952. 25 cents). This booklet, illustrated with cartoon-type drawings, surveys the history of the movement toward shorter working hours, and deals with the implications of shorter hours for productivity, government legislation, and collective bargaining. Additional pamphlets, written by the same author and selling for 25 cents each are: *Pensions Under Collective Bargaining,* and *Strikes.* Four other 25-cent pamphlets have been published by the Los Angeles division of the Institute for Industrial Relations (Business Administration-Economics Building, University of California, Los Angeles 24): *Collective Bargaining; Making Grievance Procedures Work; Employing the Seriously Impaired; and Wages: An Introduction.*

A useful primary source when a studying federal legislation affecting labor-management relations is the latest edition of *Compilation of Laws Relating to Mediation, Conciliation, and Arbitration Between Employers and Employees* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 867 p. 1952. $2). This volume includes material on topics such as hours of work, employers' liability, child labor and collective bargaining.

The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations of the University of Illinois (Office of Publication, 358 Administration Building, Urbana, Ill.) has published several bulletins that should be useful to teachers and better secondary-school students. One of these, *Workers on the Move,* deals with the problem of labor turnover in our defense economy. It presents facts and figures on labor turnover and analyzes the importance to our economy and the defense effort of reducing turnover to a minimum. Titles of other bulletins of the Institute include: *Health Programs in Collective Bargaining; Unions, Management, and Industrial Safety; Who's Too Old to Work?* and *Trends and Problems in Unemployment Insurance.* Residents of the State of Illinois can acquire single copies of these bulletins upon request without charge. Additional copies, as well as orders from non-residents, cost 10 cents each.

Occupational Outlook

By writing to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, Washington 25, teachers may have their names added to an Occupational Outlook mailing list, and will receive summaries of each new Occupational Outlook Bulletin and a wall chart suitable for bulletin board display.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Eskimo Summer. 20 minutes; color; sale, $150; rental, $5. International Film Bureau, Suite 500, 6 North Michigan Ave., Chicago 2.

This film is not a brand new one; as a matter of fact, it was produced in 1945. Only recently did we have an opportunity to see it, and when we did, we were so impressed that we felt it should not pass with just a brief listing. First of all, it's a real documentary after the fashion of Robert Flaherty's best. Second, it's an excellent example of the fine work which the National Film Board of Canada is doing in showing life within its borders.

Eskimo Summer opens with a map locating the habitat of the Canadian Eskimos. The ice is just breaking up as summer comes to the far north. The natives leave their winter homes, traveling light, and make their way to the summer fishing camps. We see them set up their skin tents, prepare a fish trap and fish from a kayak. All members of the village work. The fish are spread and smoked. Some are eaten raw. The trading ship arrives, supplies are unloaded and trading begins. The film takes the viewers on a caribou hunt, a walrus hunt and a polar bear hunt. There is also a sequence on whaling.

Eskimo Summer serves as an effective example of how man adjusts to his environment. The Eskimo uses nature's resources in meeting his needs, but trades to add to his comfort. He gets modern tools from the trading post, but he makes many articles from the skins and bones of the animals he hunts. The color gives a sense of reality and the scenes impress the audience as being natural and providing a real insight into the lives of a primitive people.

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

Arthur Barr Productions, 2155 El Sereno, Alameda, California.

The Prairie. 17 minutes; sale; color, $140; black-and white, $70. Presents a picture of the midwest prairie of the United States as it was before the white men came, and as it is today.

Brandon Films Inc., 1700 Broadway, New York 19.

The Roosevelt Story. 80 minutes; rental, $17.50. A feature length screen story of the life and times of Franklin D. Roosevelt with a teaching guide by Allan Nevins.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Antarctic Whalehunt. 19 minutes; rental, $2.50. The authentic story of a modern whaling expedition from the moment the factory ship is launched until the close of its work at the end of the first season. The film takes the audience through almost every aspect of an expedition which caught one hundred and ninety-two whales and produced two thousand five hundred barrels of oil.

Forward a Century. 30 minutes; rental, $3.75. Presents a contrasted picture of industrial and social life in Great Britain in terms of the exhibits of 1851 and 1951.

Love of Books. 11 minutes; rental, $1.50. This film presents books as "things of paper, ink, leather and glue"—things which have a long history. While the printing press has in many cases outmoded handwork, British craftsmanship is still at a peak in the hands of artists and artisans carrying on in the tradition of great bookmaking.

The Twenty-Ninth Blitz. 18 minutes; rental, $2.50. A vivid documentary account of the German Luftwaffe Blitz of December 29, 1940. In addition to being a fitting tribute to the thousands of firefighters who helped minimize this disaster through their courage and efficiency, this film is a dramatic plea for the recruiting for present-day Civilian Defense Training Centers.

Colonial Williamsburg, Film Distribution Section, Box 516, Williamsburg, Virginia.

Williamsburg Restored. 44 minutes; color; rental, $5. Traces the process by which Williamsburg was restored. Vividly portrays the scope of the architectural achievement in the restoration of the town to its eighteenth-century appearance. Then takes the audience for a trip through Williamsburg today.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Presidential Elections. 16 minutes: sale, $70; rental $2.50. Describes in detail the process by which the United States elects its president.

The Lighthouse. 12 minutes; color; sale, $100. A boy visits a lighthouse and learns about its operation and how it helps to guard the coast line.

Word Affairs Are Your Affairs. 26 minutes; sale, $100; rental, $4.50. The film emphasizes the need for citizens who are better informed about world affairs. It tells how Cleveland formed a Council on World Affairs.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 West 42nd St., New York 36.

The Golden Twenties. 68 minutes; sale, $295. Pupils will find this film fascinating. The scenes depict the

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Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

Street Safety Is Your Problem. 10 minutes; sale, $45. Addressed to boys and girls of elementary and junior high school age, this film is designed to promote safer practices when walking and playing in and near streets, driveways, and highways. Both rural and urban situations are treated.

Understanding a Map. 10 minutes; sale, $45. Models and animation show how a map represents relative size, location, and distance.

Filmstrips

Colonial Williamsburg, Film Distribution Section, Box 516, Williamsburg, Virginia.

Williamsburg. Set of 52 color slides; rental, $2.50; sale, $20.80. Interior and exterior views of the restored buildings of Williamsburg, including such special points of interest as the Capitol, Raleigh Tavern, Wren Building, Governor's Palace, and Bruton Parish Church.

Curriculum Films Inc., 10 East 40th St., New York 16.

Medieval Life. Set of 8 filmstrips in color; sale, $3.95 each; $26.40 per set. Titles are "Lord and Vassal," "Castle Life," "Knighthood," "The Serf," "The Town," "The Guild," "The Fair," "The Monastery." These strips have 25 frames in each title.

Eye Gate House Inc., 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.

Building for the Millions. 23 frames; color; sale, $4. A survey of America's building industry today. Shows home and business structures.

Herbert E. Budek Co., Hackensack, N.J.

History of Costume From the Year 1000 until 1900. 36 frames; $3.50. Illustrations from art works, sculpture, and illuminated manuscripts show European dress over 900 years of progress.

Heritage Filmstrips, Inc., 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park 74, New York.

Passing a Bill in Congress. 40 frames; sale, $3.50. Cartoon figures trace the several possibilities of action on bills in the two Houses and at the hands of the President. Also treats with the committee system and debate. Other strips in this series include *Popular Sovereignty—U.S.A., Growth of Women's Rights—U.S.A., Causes of the American Revolution, The American Revolution, The Anti-Slavery Crusade.*

The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Blvd., Detroit 11.

Introduction to the Globe. A series of 5 filmstrips in color; sale, $.25 each; $19.50 per set. Titles are: "Oceans and Continents," "Up and Down," "North, South, East and West," "Night and Day," "Hot and Cold Places."

M. C. Cooper, Box 3, Pruess Station, Los Angeles, California.

Declaration of Independence. 37 frames; color; sale, $5.75. Analyzes the document and shows its importance in our history. Brings the ideas up-to-date and shows how our citizens must defend the freedoms the Declaration gave us.

Seal of the United States. 41 frames; color; sale, $5.75. The meaning of the great seal and its uses in civilian and military affairs.

Pat Dowling Pictures, 1056 South Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles 35, California.

Pioneer Fire-Room. 30 frames; sale, $3. A filmstrip set in the Early-American room of the Chicago Historical Society to show the importance of the fireplace in a pioneer home.

Science Slides Co., 22 Oak Drive, New Hyde Park, New York.

Transportation. 50 frames; sale, $3.50. Traces the history of transportation and shows how jet-propelled carriers and guided missiles are changing the transportation picture.

The Great Explorers. Series of 12 full-color filmstrips; sale, $60, for the series, or $6.00 each. One strip is devoted to each of the following explorers: Cabot, Cortez, Lewis and Clark, Magellan, Marquette, Polo, Champlain, Columbus, Coronado, DeSoto, Drake, Hudson.

Tape Recorders

Audio Devices, Inc. (444 Madison Ave., New York 22) issues a free monthly bulletin called the *Audio Record.* The August-September, 1952 issue has a complete directory of recording instruments. It gives a picture of the recorder, furnishes the principal data concerning the machine and gives prices. This is a handy guide which should be valuable to any school contemplating the purchase of this type of apparatus. A copy may be had for the asking.

Road Maps of Industry

Would you like to receive weekly charts in full-color showing the trends in such matters as salaries, new construction, farm prices, industrial profits, and the like? These charts are sent to high school teachers at no cost by the National Industrial Conference Board (247 Park Ave., New York 17). This organization is an independent and nonprofit institution for business and industrial fact-finding through scientific research. The Board is supported by Subsidiary Associates which include trade associations, labor unions, libraries, and governmental bureaus. The charts are printed on heavy paper, measuring 8½ by 11

inches. Copies of the "Road Maps of Industry" are mailed weekly during the school year.

Guide to Free and Inexpensive Materials

There is a great mass of free and inexpensive material which is available to the teacher. Properly selected, it illustrates the words of the textbook, furnishes attractive bulletin board material, and provides a focus for vitalized discussion. To assist teachers in locating what they need along this line, the George Peabody College for Teachers (Division of Surveys and Field Services, Nashville, Tennessee) has just released its fifth edition of *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials*. Here are listed 2,521 items under 270 headings with extensive cross references. It is a labor of love just out by the graduate students of the Library School and they have really done a good job. Not only do they tell the source of the material, but they provide sufficient information so that one has a sound basis for ordering material. For the most part no item is included which costs more than 50 cents. *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* is a good buy at $1 per copy.

Maps

One of the most attractive pictorial maps we have seen in a long time is the Denoyer-Geppert Company's (5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40) "Literary-Pictorial United States." Printed in seven harmonious colors, this beautiful map depicts the literary development of the United States from colonial times down to the present day. Located on the map are the birthplaces of many authors, as well as those regions in which they lived while producing their major literary works. Also indicated are those areas throughout the country which formed the locale of famous novels, short stories, plays, or poems. Printed on book paper, the map sells for $6, or it may be had in a number of more expensive mountings. The scale is 50 miles to the inch, and the map is 64 by 44 inches in size.

It's Free!

An Index and Guide to Free Educational and Classroom Films from Industry is issued by the Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc., 903 15th St., N.W., Washington 5, D.C. The only cost to the exhibitor who uses these films is the transportation charge to and from Washington.

The Australian News and Information Bureau (636 Fifth Ave. New York) has issued an attractive catalog of films available for rent or purchase. Copies of the catalog are free.

"Better Teaching with Filmstrips" is the title of a booklet made available free to teachers. It contains some useful ideas on the nature of the filmstrips, projection technique, selection, care and storage. For a copy, write to Heritage Filmstrips Inc., 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park, N.Y.

For a complete list of filmstrips about the United Nations write to McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd St., New York 18. They now distribute the official United Nations Department of Public Information filmstrips. Individual strips are $3 each.

Helpful Articles

Bean, Helen J. "Early Colonial Music." *The Grade Teacher* 70: 48-49; November 1952. Some useful ideas for enlivening the unit on colonial life in the middle grades.

Cypher, Irene F. "First We Shape Our Buildings." *N.E.A. Journal* 51: 400-401; October 1952. Planning buildings for the use of modern material.

Disque, Ned. "Nation's First Educational TV Station." *The Nation's Schools* 50: 92-98; November 1952. A report of those years' experience at the Iowa State College where a school-owned TV station is in operation.

Dunham, Franklin. "Education's New Frontier—Television." *School Life* 35: 6-7; October 1952. Programs and problems in school TV.

French, John E. "Children's Preference for Pictures of Varied Complexity of Pictorial Pattern," *The Elementary School Journal* 53: 90-95; October 1952. Although a study of children's preference in art forms, this article has considerable significance for anyone using pictures in his teaching.

Hall, Janet. "A Student Looks at Junior Town Meetings." *Social Studies* 43: 242-244; October 1952. Values in student participation in radio and TV.

King, Gladys H. "The Teaching of Local Geography in the Fifth Grade." *The Journal of Geography* 51: 283-284; October 1952. An outline for studying the local environment.

Schreiber, Robert E. "Finding the Motion and the Picture in the Motion Picture." *Audio-Visual Guide* 19: 13-14; October 1952. Reviews the need for motion pictures that show things in motion and for integration of picture and sound.

Stoops, Betty. "Facts and Fun on Flannel Boards." *Educational Screen* 31: 324-325, 345; October 1952. How to make and use these attractive, flexible, inexpensive teaching tools.

Book Reviews

ACCULTURATION IN THE AMERICAS: PROCEEDINGS AND SELECTED PAPERS OF THE XXIX INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF AMERICANISTS, Edited by Sol Tax, ix, 339 pp., Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952. $7.50.

HERITAGE OF CONQUEST; THE ETHNOLOGY OF MIDDLE AMERICA, by Sol Tax et al., 312 pp., Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1952. $5.00.

The knotty problem of cultural interaction in Latin America constitutes the theme of these books. Unfortunately, their organization precludes a wide-spread interest. *Acculturation in the Americas* is a collection of papers presented at the Twenty-ninth International Congress of Americanists at Chicago in 1949; *Heritage of Conquest* is the record of a symposium of American ethnographers convened in the same year in New York under the auspices of the Viking Fund. As a consequence, little continuity exists in either book. The quality of the studies varies, as does the general interest in the topics treated. Compiled with the "expert audience" in mind, these works frequently repel the layman with their overly erudite detail and surprising generalities. While a complete reading of either volume would be valueless for the general teacher of the social sciences, a number of the papers contain a wealth of background material and examples which enrich the understanding of an important but neglected by-way in inter-cultural relations.

Acculturation—the accommodations and conflicts which result from the blending of cultures —is one of the most complex problems of Latin America, particularly in those countries having a large Indian or Negro population. Even in the United States, regional studies have amply demonstrated that homogeneity is mostly an adman's dream. The background of the region's settlers and its particular history and environment contribute much to its individuality. In Latin America, the varying mixtures of European, Indian and African cultures, cast among environments ranging from tropical lowlands to cold highlands, and over-shadowed by a turbulent history, have led to cultural variations far beyond those found in the United States. In some cases the culture has changed only superficially, as among the Haitian peasantry whose ties with African traits are easily discernible. In other places, in the large cities or towns on commercial routes, life has been almost completely Europeanized. But the most interesting groups are those in which cultural mixtures are still not complete, and where individual and group conflicts are prevalent.

The use of Rorschach and other personality tests has demonstrated that no easy compromise exists in the struggle between the basic extroverted-individualism of European bourgeois culture and the introverted-collective-mindedness of Indian agricultural life. Generations after the material aspects of European life are adopted, the old personality traits remain to conflict with the new set of attitudes and values. Attributing the behaviour of the various racial and cultural mixtures in Latin America to "bad blood," or relating their behaviour to social rejection by both European and Indian societies, misses much of the point of the problem. The individuals caught in the process of acculturization suffer from deep-seated personality difficulties.

In Latin America, opening a new road shatters the old way of life more than setting up a dozen schools. The Indian is an incorrigible traveller, and given the opportunity, he will make up a pack of clay pots or salable agricultural staples in order to give him an excuse to visit for fifty or a hundred miles around his village. His mobility exacts a price: he enters the money economy. As the number of people making the transition increases, various aspects of communal village life also start to undergo a transformation. One aspect of the problem is the effect the change has upon the children. Typically, Indian children are raised in an entirely permissive atmosphere, getting neither diapers, toilet training nor punishment until they can reason. Their personalities gradually merge into family and village life through chores which increase until they are old enough to assume a full adult burden. Under these subtle pressures, the Indian literally blends into his society as he matures. In the home of a *ladino*—Europeanized in culture, wholly or partially Indian in race—a father-dominated family is marked by a fairly strict discipline and impositon of authority, which culminates in a formal education that wholly divorces the child from his place in society. The *ladino* child must learn how to integrate his book-learning with the

realities of family and community living and bread-winning. The result is the well-known conflicts of adolescence. Often the family carries along, as part of its private cultural heritage, some of the traits of its Indian background. These are passed on to the children by their mother and servants; later they are denied as acceptable attitudes and values in the social environment of the *ladino*. The young *ladino* adult often develops a feeling of insecurity, which frequently manifests itself in promiscuity and alcoholism. The latter effects can also be seen in the village Indian moving into a town in order to get a cash-paying job.

The next most engrossing sections of these studies are those describing the mode of life of peoples in various stages of acculturation, including sketches of home, work, and business life. Several other papers cover the dance, art, religion and language. These are "teachers' books," in the sense that the conditions they sketch will help those attempting to convey an intelligent impression of our too often misunderstand neighbors.

MARVIN D. BERNSTEIN

Washington, D.C.

●

THE STREAM OF AMERICAN HISTORY, Vol. I. By Leland D. Baldwin. New York: American Book Company, 1952. 974 p. $5.00.

PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN HISTORY. By Richard W. Leopold and Arthur S. Link. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1952. 929 p. $5.00.

The recent variety in American history texts for college use indicates that there is a constant search to achieve the most satisfactory approach to the subject and arrangement of materials. Two new works are examples of current developments in the production of advanced American history texts.

Baldwin's volume, the more traditional of the two, represents the comprehensive view of life and developments in America. His point of view is broad and sweeping and his understanding all-encompassing. He knows his material, and he handles it in a lively and reasonable fashion. Baldwin has arranged the material in large topical areas in chronological order.

The idea of political democracy is emphasized. There are, in addition, full discussions of economic ideas and developments; clearcut descriptions of the impact of intellectual forces; an expansive view of United States foreign affairs in their world setting; and numerous brief but revealing biographical sketches. Baldwin does not overlook the natural surroundings and regional differences that have been significant in the "stream of American history."

A profusion of maps, many of them apparently original, is one of the features of the physical make-up of the book. The illustrations are adequate but are less noteworthy than the maps. Chapter bibliographies are usefully annotated, and there is a list of general references for the entire volume. In addition to the usual index, there is a convenient index of authors.

The comprehensiveness of Baldwin's text should make it a handy source of information. Teachers will find a place for it on their reference shelf, and portions of the text can be assigned to the more capable senior high school student. As a college text, however, there may be question about its value. The material of American history, from the age of discovery through the reconstruction period, is set forth in more than 900 pages of reading. The facts, issues, forces, and developments are analyzed by one individual. There is little that is challenging that would stimulate students to doing further exploration or having their own thoughts.

Leopold and Link represent the exact opposite in present-day text book writing. They have not attempted to be inclusive. Their 929 pages cover American history from colonization to the current post-war crises. With 18 other college professors, these authors have set up 20 major subjects or problems. Brief statements introduce each problem, and the material that follows consists of excerpts from writings on the subject. Most of the excerpts are from contemporary sources although several are the authoritative comments of later observers. The writings present contrasting points of view and treat many different facets of each problem.

Following comparable examples in recent volumes of source materials, the Leopold and Link volume implies challenging and thoughtful investigation. The volume is strong where Baldwin is weak just as the converse is equally true. The Leopold and Link collection is designed to be provocative, yet it so only in the limited area provided by the 20 problems, and these lean heavily toward political and constitutional issues. Moreover it lacks any of the mechanical assets—maps, illustrations, bibliography, and index—provided by Baldwin.

The Leopold and Link work will be carefully considered by the college instructor seeking fresh

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material in a familiar organization. The excerpts, of course, can be used in many high school discussions of the problems.

WILLIAM G. TYRRELL

The University of the State of New York
The State Education Department, Albany

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UNDERSTANDING OUR FREE ECONOMY: AN INTRODUCTION TO ECONOMICS. By Fred Rogers Fairchild in collaboration with Thomas J. Shelly. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., 1952. xi + 589 p. $3.96.

A pointed indictment of present-day book reviews is presented by F. O. Mathiessen in a recent issue of the *Atlantic Monthly* where he condemns the book reviewer for not surveying all the literature in the field in order to evaluate the contribution or addition that is being made by the book under consideration. In reviewing the text *Understanding Our Free Economy* it is not difficult to place it in proper perspective with current texts, for it fits snugly in the niche carved out by the disciples of Adam Smith and Marshall. This book emphasizes the demand-supply explanation of all economic phenomena and studiously avoids the vast body of economic theory and explanation which has been developed since the beginning of the twentieth century.

The most glaring fault of this book as far as the secondary school teacher is concerned is the extreme bias and failure to present all the relevant information. An example of this shortcoming is the analysis of deficit financing of government in which it is stated that the effect of such financing policies is deep and far-reaching, yet the only effect even mentioned is the negative aspect of the inflationary force. Further evidence of bias is indicated by the bibliographies offered at the conclusion of each part. These book lists include only the literature written and published by partisans of the free-enterprise school of economic thought. If the student or teacher desires to study both sides of a question, this text offers no encouragement and less reference material.

A further telling defect found in this text is the use of materials and statistics which are unverified, usually with no source given. This is particularly striking in the discussion of the T.V.A. where special emphasis by the authors is placed upon the inaccuracy of official statistics, but the evidence presented by the book is neither documented nor adequately explained. It must

be further pointed out that in the analysis of various types of economic systems, this text includes all economic ideas other than pure capitalism in the general category of socialism, which therefore makes them evil per se.

Two quotations from this work will explain to teachers of economics the type of thinking which dominates the book. The first quotation is selected from the discussion of Limits to Monopoly found on pages 184 and 185:

> The fact is that private industrial monopolies do not generally flourish in a free economy. Actually, most of the serious problems of monopoly arise from government monopolies or monopolies imposed or fostered by government.

The sixty-year period of history of the American experiment with a free economy from 1870 to 1930 would offer honest refutation to this argument. And again, to quote from the presentation of Recent Monetary History in the United States, page 217, and the discussion of the abandonment of the gold standard in the United States in 1933-34:

> This action (the abandonment of gold) was not forced by weakness in the monetary system or any threat to the gold reserve. It was a deliberate act, as part of a policy to increase the power of the government over the national economy.

History presented in this fashion to high school students is a deliberate distortion of the situation and a total negation of the volumes of scholarly research which have previously been presented on this particular subject.

Unfortunately, there is so much room for criticism of this text that the reviewer may fail to see the values of such a work. In fairness to the authors, however, it must be stated emphatically that the sections dealing with index numbers and with banking are well done, simple, and easy to understand for the beginning student. Also, the emphasis on precise definition of terms and the inclusion of a glossary of these terms, helps to make part of this text useful in the teaching of economics. But, the primary value from this text would be derived from its use as a complete expression of the neo-Smith tradition of classical economics which might then be compared with Keynesian ideology and other major presentations of economic ideas.

A casual reading of this text, or a general acceptance of the work for classroom use, would be a dangerous trend in elementary economic instruction since the authors have presented their case for a free economy by overlooking or condemning ideas and methods which disagree with their point of view. No teacher of the subject desires to present a course which is aimed at destroying the values and virtues of the American system. Yet, on the other hand, it would be extremely unethical to overlook the progress and activity which have taken place in our country and in the world in which we live. It is no longer possible to cite as a cure for the country's ills the demand and supply function, or the return to the gold standard, or free trade. The science of economics demands a thorough and complete exposition of all ideas; the value-judgements are for the student to formulate for himself *after* he has studied the total picture.

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●

AMERICA'S GREATEST CHALLENGE. By Walter E. Myer and Clay Coss. Washington, D.C.: Civic Education Service, 1952. 215 pp. $2.75.

The thesis of this book, cogently argued, is that America's greatest challenge is the political education of its citizenry. The authors decry—and they are not alone—the widespread apathy of Americans toward voting in primary elections, political party activity and citizens' own ignorance of public affairs. While they master their jobs, conquer disease and build a magnificent civilization American citizens threaten their own survival as free men by their indifference toward the true meaning of self-government. "For 40 centuries nations have risen only to fall." To meet this challenge Messrs. Myer and Coss have written this book to show how schools, individuals and adult organizations can participate in a nation-wide program of citizenship education.

Their recommendations for the education of adults will meet with little opposition. There is little of tradition and vested interest to overcome. And in their proposals for neighborhood discussion groups, PTAs, the League of Women Voters, etc., there is no compulsion.

It is their major proposal for a school program that will not be so readily accepted, however fervently one could wish it might be. In the authors' words: "The greatest educational need today, in our opinion, is the nation-wide adoption of a compulsory five-day-a-week course devoted to the study of current issues and political activities."

In presenting their case for such a course the authors are quite aware that (1) some voices in our schools are saying that the study of current

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affairs can be, and has been, overdone; (2) others declare that teaching current affairs on a one-day-a-week basis in history courses is enough; (3) still others assert that teachers of English, science, foreign language equally with social studies teachers can teach current developments in their respective fields sufficiently well; (4) a large body of administrators believes there is no time in the curriculum for added, required courses. These, they admit, are obstacles to the adoption of their proposal.

A five-day-a-week course, the authors show, is practical because its information will be used before forgotten; it is continuous and therefore habit-forming; it is protective in equipping young people to deal with controversy; and it is realistic because it treats of what matters now. Teachers, curriculum makers, administrators and citizens generally will do well to read this book.

Having established their case in ten chapters the authors present in Chapter eleven a list of some twenty-one "Problems To Be Solved." Included in this list are nations such as Germany and Japan; issues such as disarmament and foreign aid; trends such as prosperity or depression; and reforms, such as election machinery. Pertinent, provocative questions are listed for each topic.

Part II of the book is devoted to an annotated listing of "Tools for the Citizen" which includes newspapers, books, magazines, radio and television programs. This alone is a worthy handbook for a teacher's desk.

The style of writing is easy and forceful, and can be read rapidly by both high school students and teachers. The question remains, what will we do about the challenge? To quote the authors: "What a two-fold challenge we face! First, to do something that no country has ever done before; second, to break the age-old tradition that nations rise *only to fall*."

HAROLD M. LONG

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●

RECLAMATION IN THE UNITED STATES. By Alfred R. Golzé. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. xiii + 451 p. $8.00.

Irrigation, as a phase of reclamation, is as old as recorded history and probably older. Alfred R. Golzé reminds us that modern irrigation in the United States began just over a century ago when the Morman settlers under the leadership of Brigham Young diverted City Creek to

water their fields and gardens on the shores of the Great Salt Lake. Since then, through individual effort, corporate promotion, community and cooperative enterprise and State and Federal development, approximately 21 million acres have been reclaimed from the sagebrush for crops through irrigation. For the last fifty years, the dominant agent, however, in reclaiming lands in the western states, has been the federal government through its Bureau of Reclamation. Partner to the irrigation enterprises of the Bureau, with the passage of years and the enactment of further legislation, has been the increasing development of hydroelectric power.

The creation of the multiple purpose project and the growth of hydroelectric power involving the expenditure of billions of dollars has extended not only the demands for new specialists among the participants in reclamation work (civil, mechanical, and electrical engineers; lawyers, accountants, economists, and even doctors, but has also widened the concepts of understanding of the many facets of reclamation activity. The author believes, therefore, that this text will be of value in providing instruction material for college courses in engineering and economics relating to reclamation; and in satisfying the need for readily accessible reference material on reclamation generally found scattered in scores of periodical articles "for those persons seeking an understanding of its importance, objectives, and place in the national economy."

The opening chapter deals with the history of reclamation in the United States and summarizes the accomplishments of the Federal reclamation program with a few impressive statistics. The following chapter on the economics of reclamation testifies to the need for reclamation, and to the additional quantities of food produced. It also describes the growth of the family farm program, as well as the surplus power created for industry, power revenues, taxes, and the extent of increased purchasing power in the reclaimed areas.

Other chapters are concerned with explanations of reclamation law, both state and federal; the activities of the several states and the Federal agencies other than the Bureau of Reclamation and the Army Engineers supporting western development; the numerous steps to be taken leading to the authorization of proposed projects; descriptions of recent single-purpose, multiple-purpose, and river-basin projects; a review of the methods of estimating the construction costs of these projects; the financing; operation and maintenance; the accounting and repayment; and settlement, including the latest methods of selecting war veterans for settlement on public lands.

Appropriate tables, charts, photographs, statistics, and chapter references are also helpful to the use of the text.

I can readily see also how persons responsible for putting to work the water resources of undeveloped and underdeveloped areas outside of the United States, and who wish to profit from our experiences, could also find Mr. Golzé's text fruitful reading.

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●

THE MAKING OF ENGLISH HISTORY. Edited by Robert Livingston Schuyler and Herman Ausubel. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. xvi + 686 pp. $5.60.

Every history teacher repeatedly asks himself, "What can I do to give my students a first-hand knowledge of historical method?" Almost invariably part of his answer is "collateral reading," but it usually fails to measure up to his expectations. Fortunately, he can find assistance in the collection of English history articles by twentieth-century scholars edited by Schuyler and Ausubel.

Unlike Ausubel's *Making of Modern Europe*, the present volume rarely presents two points of view on the same topic. In many ways, however, it does bring home lessons of historical method. The volume opens with Charles H. McIlwain's warning against the danger of reading the present into the past. J. N. L. Myres shows the value of auxiliary sciences in writing history; Sidney Painter in a fascinating article on early medieval castles mentions that sometimes facts are so well known to contemporaries that no documentary reference is made to them; Nellie Neilson pleads for a study of local customs and variations so as not to see uniformity where it doesn't exist; *in* Archibald S. Foord's article, historical research methods are self-evident; William T. Laprade points out that papers must be considered as relics and as part of the social fabric.

Mention of these few authors is unfair to the many other excellent ones represented in the seventy articles culled from books and from thirty-eight British and American periodicals which are not in most college libraries. The editors have included several excellent character

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studies. Some of the articles are brilliant pieces of synthesis or interpretation. Others warn against a loose use of terminology. Still others show that many historical problems are awaiting solution, issue historical cautions, and give bibliographical aid. By pointing out that viewpoints have become antiquated and by criticizing other authors, the articles should certainly impress upon the student that nobody's word should be accepted as gospel, not even his teacher's.

To meet the needs of teachers, the editors have put main stress on the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, and on domestic developments —social, economic, and intellectual as well as political and constitutional. To meet the needs of pupils, each article is preceded by an excellent introductory paragraph and accompanied by a glossary and an identification of proper names. Although several articles tend to be detailed and technical, this reviewer thought an even 50 percent could be selected by the secondary school teacher as interesting and intelligible to his students. Certainly the volume should at least be in every high school library.

ROBERT B. HOLTMAN

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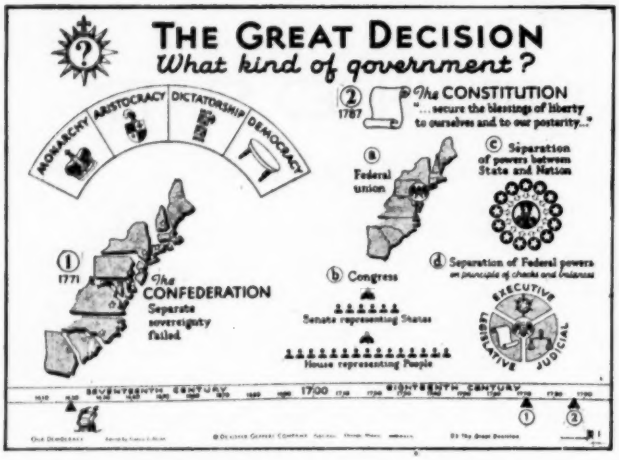

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WHY DO WE HAVE WARS?

(Continued from page 30)

analysis. Little value can be gained through course work which is limited to decrying war *per se*. It is also senseless to talk of removing the causes of war. Causes stem from natural conflict among peoples resulting from conditions inherent in a dynamic society. The crux is to find peaceful means to provide for changes which will, in turn, reduce or eliminate the necessity of resorting to open violence. Since the peaceful means, as can be seen by the comparison of international and national society, depend on the prior existence of a real "international community," the first responsibility is here. The immediate challenge to teachers of social studies is to gear curriculum and methods toward that end. It demands less of the idealistic and overly optimistic approach to the U.N. and the elimination of war. It requires more of the realistic analysis of why war exists as expressed in the above paragraphs. The challenge of realism is a difficult one, but must be met to really build a climate permissive of a more "warless world."

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